

THE LONDON SATURDAY JOURNAL.

PUBLISHED BY WILLIAM SMITH, 113, FLEET STREET.

No. 57.]

SATURDAY, FEBRUARY 1, 1840.

[PRICE TWOPENCE.

CHANCES OF LIVING IN LONDON.

THE Japanese apply the complimentary epithet of "the universal theatre of pleasure and diversion" to Osacca, one of their five "imperial" towns. To the French, Paris is also the "universal theatre of pleasure and diversion;" and though we of England are not so sprightly in our notions, and look as much to the chances of living as the chances of fun, still London has ever been regarded, even by the "natives," as a concentration of all comfort, a combination of all means and appliances to enable life not only to live, but to be spent as pleasantly and as agreeably as possible. We all know how Johnson and Charles Lamb adored London, and how Boswell sighed after it; and though convenience of access to the country, and the thousand improvements of the last half-century, have effected a great change in the feelings of the fashionable and wealthier classes, and they no longer shudder to quit for a season what was, to their fathers, "the universal theatre of pleasure and diversion," still, at the appointed time, they all return, to the joy of the tradespeople of the "West-end," and to the gratification of annuitants, and other respectable people of limited means, who have nothing to do, and to whom the annual half-yearly excitement of politics, court gossip, and the congregation of much people, is necessary, as an essential of existence.

But there is another large class, mostly of the young, who, scattered through the provinces of Great Britain, look towards LONDON with longing eyes, and fancy that it is altogether different from all other places—that it is the "universal theatre," not only of "pleasure and diversion," but of all intelligence, improvement, and exertion: if they were only "up in London," how they would get on! The ready access to London now enjoyed, might, one would think, much diminish the exaggerated notions entertained, by enabling a much larger number of the provincials to report, as eye-witnesses, what London is really like. But the contrary is the result; for, like travellers in all places, the now much-increased number of visitors, having but a limited period to stay, are hurried from "sight to sight," and see "shows" which the regular Londoners have neither time nor inclination to go and see; and so, flying from the British Museum and the National Gallery to the Tower and the Tunnel, rambling in the parks, staring at the endless stream of carriages, carts, equestrians, and pedestrians, which throng along the continued thoroughfare of Cheapside, Fleet-street, and the Strand, and wandering amongst the streets and squares of the "West-end," they go back to their "country quarters," holding up their hands and exclaiming, "What a wonderful place London is, to be sure!"

But take the case of a young man who has come up to London with a pound or two in his pocket, and who calculates on obtaining some employment before his supplies are exhausted. His letters home—perhaps to a mother, or a sister, or a companion—are, for the first week or two, of an excited nature. He, too, marvels over all that he sees; enjoys with eager zest the cheap and comfortable enjoyments of some "dining-house;" gets a glimpse of the

"Queen" as she goes to parliament, or to the park, or the theatre; and can give his opinion as to the personal appearance of not a few great people, for whom he has patiently watched; has got into the House of Commons during the daytime, and actually sat down in the Speaker's chair; penetrated to the bar of the House of Lords, and wonders in his inmost heart (for he is afraid, in these intelligent times, of being ridiculed if he should let *this* out) how so many lords should look like so many plain gentlemen; and visiting Westminster Abbey, for which he pays, and the other sights for which he does not pay, he is full of laudation, and echoes the universal, or, at least, all but universal, sentiment, that "London is a wonderful place, to be sure!"

Wait a little: he has not yet got employment, and it is very easy for him to count the remaining shillings in his purse. He has seen everything, and he does not much care to go and see them again. If he had any letters of introduction, they are all delivered, and he is unwilling to go and trouble the kind people, who all faithfully promised that they "would bear him in mind" and "see what they could do for him." He knows nobody, and nobody knows him. His spirits sink rapidly, for he feels that he is in a wilderness of men; and if a dreary, down-dripping day should come on, he goes to bed with the feeling that of all horrible, selfish, and unenviable places, big, monstrous, straddling London is the worst!

For the benefit of our country readers, we will endeavour to state, as impartially as we can, what are "the chances of living in London." No universally general rules can be laid down: of two individuals of the same profession who have come to London together, one might get employment on the morrow which might be of a permanent nature, and the other, after waiting for a month, may only get a situation of a casual and temporary character.

We may, then, commence with the too-generally well-known fact, that London presents a vast field for employment; and that, generally speaking, the common observation may be admitted as true, that it would be strange if, after a time, a clever, steady young man did not, as the phrase is, "get on." We say, "after a time." People do not carry descriptive labels on their foreheads or their backs, indicating their qualifications; and though a good face and a good manner are very good letters of introduction, a stranger must submit to be treated as a stranger until his workmanship and his character gradually bring him under notice. We will not advert to the cases of superior workmen in professions requiring nice mechanical skill and handicraftship. The combinations of intelligence, steady conduct, and nice mechanical skill, in one and the same individual, are, thanks to the "diffusion of knowledge," not so rare as they were: it is not now thought so necessary, thanks to the spread of temperance habits, for a clever workman to manifest his foolish importance by spending three days of every six in the pot-house. No!—workmen begin to understand their own interests a little better. Still, the combination is rare, as compared with the mass of operatives; and, therefore, a clever, ingenious, intelligent, steady mechanic may always be sure of

forcing his own way in London, especially if his profession be one which requires considerable training and practice, and, to a certain extent, prevents the pressure of competition.

But, beginning with the beginning, we may commence with "authors." Authorship, then, is a regular profession in London, numbering a great many "professors," who truly subsist by their "wits," but who scarcely hold a recognisable place in society, and for whose profession our language has no generally available and descriptive name. With the Bulwers, the Dickenses, the Hooks, the Ainsworths, and the Trollopes, we have nothing to do. These, by the force of ability and the force of circumstances (for generally *both* have to be combined), have "got their names up," and can command, like first-rate artists, clever physicians, and dextrous mechanics, their own terms, or at least nearly so. Nor have we much to say to literary men, who are not dependent on their literary exertions, but, having some little independence, write for pleasure as well as for pence. We speak of the hard-working literary men (and some of them *are* hard worked), who live by the collection and the hammering out of ideas, and to whom words are money. There are of course all ranks and grades amongst them. Some, who affect the genteel style, and like to visit at the "West-end," find it hard enough to make both ends meet and keep up appearances; a few, who care more for realities than appearances, live secluded, attend to their work, and save money. We know one hard-working gentleman, who has no time and less taste for visits and dinner-parties, whose hands are always filled with work, who earns about six hundred pounds annually, and who saves about one-half of it; another, who earns about four hundred, and perhaps saves, on an average, about a hundred. But there are many more who rank literally as "journeymen," and who only earn from one hundred and fifty to two hundred, and, therefore, can save nothing. In the case of regular literary men, "unknown to fame," it is necessary to be permanently connected with some publishing house, as a "*point d'appui*." Several large publishing houses keep a number of literary "journeymen," who are paid generally by fixed salaries, who stand in much the same position as "clerks," and who are treated with more or less of gentlemanly consideration, according as the temper, taste, or inclination of their employers may incline. These men, if they are quiet, humble, jog-trot compilers, may pursue the "even tenor of their way" without much disturbance; and are only puzzled, when they go to register the birth of a child, as to whether they shall inscribe themselves "gentlemen," or indicate their profession by some odd title, such as that of "literary contributor." It is difficult, however, to creep into the ranks of the "journeymen" literati, humble as pay and prospects may be. Like all precarious employments which require no capital to begin with, and for the exercise of which there is no definite qualification or test, beyond the ability "to write" to the satisfaction of the employer, the supply exceeds the demand.

We need not here notice the reporters for the newspapers, and the short-hand writers who haunt the courts and the houses of parliament. Amongst the short-hand writers, in particular, there is a kind of "conventional corporation," by which the supply is in some measure kept down to the demand. Persons wishing to get amongst them must become acquainted with some of the regular members of the craft, and serve patiently as supernumeraries, before they get admitted on the staff. The employment of short-hand writers, like the employment of law-writers, is generally an alternate "burst and a starve;" all hurry, at one time, and a large amount of money made within a short space; and then perhaps an interval of days without anything to do.

The "artists" stand in the same position as literary men. The supply exceeds the demand; their profession leads to "genteel" and often wasteful habits; and they are frequently on the verge of starvation, unless they are regularly connected with, or employed by, some extensive firm. We of course exclude all the higher-class artists, as we excluded the higher-class literary men. During the past twelve months, it has been painful to witness the numbers of engravers, many of them possessing great taste and talent, entering, cap in hand, with their specimens, into publishing shops, and sometimes begging for employment on almost any terms. Very clever engravers may earn, on an average, four pounds a week; but we know more than one who, with much sedulous attention, steadiness, and skill, have not earned on the whole, for the last two years, above one hundred pounds per annum.

Quitting the precarious professions, of which we can say little more than that there are too many barristers, physicians, and surgeons in London struggling to put something more than nothing into an empty purse, and far too many lawyers' clerks, all eagerly jostling each other, and rushing in crowds after vacant situations, we may pass on to the "trades." And as we began with authors in the professions, so we may begin with printers in the trades. The compositors employed on the daily morning newspapers receive as weekly wages 2*l.* 8*s.*, and those employed on the daily evening newspapers, somewhat less, or 2*l.* 3*s.* 6*d.* The night-work of the morning papers is extremely laborious and exhausting; nevertheless, the competitors for vacancies are always numerous, and many a man has waited for years for such a situation. There are supernumeraries always employed about newspaper offices; and too frequently these rank, in relation to their regularly-employed brethren, in much the same way that the watermen at hackney-coach stands do to the drivers. Steady supernumeraries have, of course, a good chance for stepping in to fill up vacancies.

Amongst the large number of "book-offices"—that is, offices where books are printed, in contra-distinction to newspaper-offices—in London, there must be a considerable number where tolerably snug situations can be procured. But these become fewer every day, while the competitors for vacancies in those that do exist are increased. The time has long since gone by (mourned over by the old men who remember the old state of things) when compositors had their own "frames," or stances, in which quietly to do their work, and whole volumes given to them composedly to compose. Work is now got out with lightning-like rapidity; volumes are transferred from manuscript to type with a celerity which is astonishing; and there is, consequently, no time to think about the personal comfort or convenience of individuals. The slightest delay, neglect, or absence of a compositor, often produces great inconvenience; and so, too frequently, the considerate and the inconsiderate are obliged to be treated alike, and the man who has been waiting all day in his office for "copy," if he goes out in the afternoon, may find on his return that the expected "copy" has arrived, but been given into the hands of another. On the adage that "a cook should not starve in a cook-shop," compositors should be intelligent men; and there are many intelligent men in their ranks. But there are also too many amongst them who have little taste and little intelligence, and who put types together in much the same fashion that one might pitch bricks together. We may, therefore, say that the supply exceeds the demand: for though really good compositors are comparatively scarce, and one such, as soon as he becomes known, may command tolerably steady employment, the entire number are more than sufficient for the work to be done; and the unsteady, the unskilful, and the unfortunate, cannot average

above 1*l*. a week, taking all the year round. Good compositors in regular employment may average yearly about 2*l*. per week; a few, 2*l*. 10*s*.; where weekly wages are given, the fixed sum is 1*l*. 16*s*.

Connected with printers are readers, or correctors of the press. These may be either of the superior order of compositors, whose intelligence raises them to the reading-desk; or individuals, not printers, selected for the purpose. London readers take far higher rank than the printing-office readers of provincial towns; many of them are familiar with several of the Continental languages, and have a smattering of Greek and Latin; a few are really good scholars. Their work is of a close, confining nature, and their pay varies from 2*l*. to 3*l*. per week.

Of the tailors, scarcely anything more may be said than that they absolutely swarm in London. Provincial men come up to spend a season or two in order to improve themselves; and there is a perpetual variety of new faces. A very great number do not get constant employment throughout the year. Still, a superior man, who holds his head erect, dresses decently, and can handle his needle and scissors in a decent style, has always a good chance of getting into one of the large establishments at the West-end; and if he is an attentive and sober man, he may calculate on earning from 30*s*. to 36*s*. a week. There are some very good situations to be got, as "foremen," "cutters," &c., which may produce from 2*l*. 10*s*. to 4*l*. per week; but these are the tailors' prizes, and can only be procured by men of good character, good address, and other "superior" characteristics. The usual pay of tailors is 5*s*. and 6*s*. a day. There are many respectable men amongst them, who do very well, but there is also a sad set of careless and indifferent idlers.

Allied to the tailors, are the numerous "assistants" of drapers, silk-mercers, &c. The influence of "large establishments," and the eager competition which exists, is beginning seriously to interfere with the personal comfort of working-men in almost all departments: men come to-day and go to-morrow, and there is, too frequently, as little personal attachment and connexion between the employers and the employed, as there would be between a ship and an anchor united by a line of rotten packthread. But it is amongst the drapers and silk-mercers that the influence of large establishments produces its most offensive and degrading results. If we had a son or a brother who was about to select a profession, we would say to him with all earnestness, "Oh, whatever you propose to do, for goodness' sake do not become an 'assistant' in one of those large establishments!" In some of them there are from one hundred to one hundred and fifty young men, who are boarded in the houses, and get about 20*l*. per annum, or rather we should say at that rate, for a year's residence is a long time to calculate on. Some of the more clever, who are very sharp in pushing business, may get 30*l*. or even 40*l*. per annum. Scarcely any of them can calculate on holding their situations except as from day to day. Let a lady go into one of those large establishments, and if it happens not to be a very "busy" day, she will be beset by a dozen young men, all of them teasing her, with the most nauseous blandishments, to "buy, buy, buy!" The young men's sales are always balanced; and if the employers think that any one of them has not sold as much as he ought to have done, he will get immediate notice to quit. Porters keep "watch and ward" at night at the doors, after business is over; the moment eleven o'clock strikes, the bolts are entered; and any of the young men who have been out to spend their evening, and who happen to be a few minutes too late in reaching the "barracks," may go and get a lodging where they can, and, very possibly, next morning, if numbered amongst the "missing," may have to seek out for another situation. The influence of all this on the young men is very pernicious. They are stimulated to become proficient in what they fancy to be smartness and politeness, but which, in fact, is only a sort of underbred impertinence; they pique themselves on their coats being of the newest cut, and their cravats put on with the nicest tie; but in the qualities of manly independence and general information they are compelled to be sadly deficient. In some of the large establishments, libraries are provided for the young men: but after they have spent an entire day rolling and unrolling, coaxing and entreating, and shouting out "Cash!" we may easily understand that to spend their evening leisure in going out to have a stroll will be more tempting than to sit down and read.

Amongst the smaller establishments, there are some very good situations, especially where the employers are kind and considerate, and can afford the time to become acquainted with their young

men. But, as a general rule, the situation of shopman is difficult to procure, and frequently difficult to keep, whether it be with grocers, oilmen, or even booksellers. Superior young men of good address, intelligent habits, and active, are unfortunately rather scarce, as compared with the mass of competitors for situations; and these therefore, as we said of superior mechanics, may, after a time, force their own way, and get into good situations, which it will be their own fault if they do not keep. The large grocery establishments rank next to the drapers and mercers in the treatment of young men; much depends on the temper of the employer. We know instances where, on the slightest movements of caprice, men who, some few hours before, had been praised for their exertions, have been "kicked out," like mangy dogs.

Of the condition of the cabinet-makers in London we have no general information. We have been over Seddon's large establishment in Gray's-inn-road (which is the largest, we believe, of the kind in the metropolis), and admired the splendid array of costly furniture in the show-room. The cabinet-makers employed here are rather "select," that is to say, men known to be good workmen. It is, consequently, rather difficult to get employed; as, if the "regular hands" can do the work, they get it all to do. These "regular hands," some of whom have been years in the establishment, are paid by the "job," which, according to its nature, may be very productive or otherwise. Taking the year round, they may average 2*l*. a week.

But our space and our information would fail us were we to attempt to indicate the varied employments of London which afford "chances of living." To take an instance. Mr. Adams, a very intelligent carriage-manufacturer, published, some little time ago, a work on "English Pleasure Carriages," in which he describes the various classes of workmen connected with the building of a carriage. Thus, the workmen employed by coach-makers, out of their own premises, and through the agency of other tradesmen, are, axle-tree makers, spring-makers, wheelwrights, lamp-makers, trunk-makers, blind-makers, joiners, turners, lace-makers, curriers, japanners, ivory-workers, platers, chasers, and embroiderers. Many more workmen are indirectly employed, such as cloth-workers, silk-weavers, glass-makers, screw, nail and lock-makers, metal-workers generally, carpet-weavers and floor-cloth makers, waterproof cloth-makers, cotton-workers, tanners, morocco-dressers, hemp and flax-workers, glue-makers, colour and varnish-makers, and others who do not work exclusively for carriage-builders. The workmen usually employed in the best carriage-factories are—body-makers, carriage-makers, carvers, smiths, trimmers, painters, brace and harness-makers, sawyers, and labourers. Designers, draughtsmen, and herald-painters, come under the category of artists.

Body-makers are skilful joiners, who must be able to draw well, or they cannot work well; must have correctness of eye and skill of hand, and each workman must have a capital in tools varying from thirty to forty pounds. As such men are not numerous, they command high wages. When in full work, very quick workmen will earn 5*l*. per week; but as they seldom have full work the year through, they do not average more than four. Ordinary workmen do not earn more than 3*l*. per week, and on the average less than that.

Carriage-makers are more akin to millwrights in the work they perform; and neatness, not extreme delicacy, of workmanship is required from them. According as the carriage-maker is an indifferent or a good workman, he may earn, while employed, from 2*l*. to 3*l*. per week. Carvers are divided into classes, some being artists, furnishing designs as well as executing them, others only working from designs furnished. Their wages therefore vary from 30*s*. to 4*l*. and 5*l*. per week; but, like many other workmen, they are unemployed during several months of the year.

Coach-smiths are the most skilful of all iron-workers. They are divided into three classes—firemen, hammermen, and vicemen. Firemen mostly work by the piece, and earn from 2*l*. to 3*l*. and 4*l*. per week, according to the kind of work. The hammermen earn from 25*s*. to 30*s*., and the vicemen from 30*s*. to 2*l*.

Trimmers are to carriages what upholsterers are to houses, and, according to their quickness and skill, may earn from 30*s*. to 3*l*., or even 4*l*., per week. Then there are the carriage-painters, whose work forms an important branch of the carriage trade; with the other branches, whose names we have given above, and whose earnings vary from 25*s*., 30*s*., and 2*l*., up to 3*l*. and 4*l*. Lace-making formerly constituted an important branch of carriage-building, as skilled workmen were few, and they commanded high prices for their labour. This was when the manufacture

was confined to London; but since the increase of carriages it is made wholesale at Manchester, and other manufacturing towns. The London carriage lacemakers are, like most weavers, miserably poor; as is the case with all trades which are wearing out, or where the mode of operation is changing. On the whole, notwithstanding the apparently high wages earned by the greater part of the workmen employed by carriage-builders, but few of them, and those only amongst the most skilful, enjoy constant work. High wages have produced the common effect of increasing the numbers of the workmen beyond what are necessary for the demand.

Here we pause: but we have much more to say on this extensive and important subject; and one department of it—how far a shilling may be made to go in London—has not yet been touched. We will, therefore, resume the subject in our next Number.

VIEWS OF EUROPEAN MORTALITY.

WHEN in the month of October we see frequent announcements to the effect that the duke or earl of so and so is about starting for Italy, where he means to spend the winter, one not in the habit of inquiring very minutely into statistical details would naturally conclude that Italy, of all other places in Europe, is the most delightfully salubrious—the most favourable to human life. When, on the other hand, we find that Scotch mists and Irish marshes or bogs have passed into proverbs, on account of their density or number, it being a settled point that humidity is a copious source of disease, we as naturally conclude that these countries will be anything but favourable to longevity. These, we say, are the ideas which arise in our minds from a simple statement of facts, without our stooping to inquiry or reflection. Will it be credited that the case is exactly the reverse; that the chances of life are twice as great amid the eternal fogs of Scotland as they are in the sunny clime of Italy “the beautiful?” It would require strong proof to convince us of this; but it is a fact supported and attested by the most unquestionable evidence. It is a very remarkable circumstance, that amongst the nations of Europe who live under the same zone, and present comparatively few differences in point of physical or moral condition, there should be such extraordinary differences in regard to mortality. In some places it is *three* times as great as it is in others. From an elaborate paper on this subject, which appeared in the celebrated French work the “*Révue Encyclopédique*,” it appears that amongst the principal European states the difference of their mortality, compared with their population, is as follows:—

In the Roman states, and the ancient Venetian provinces, there annually dies 1 person in 28; in Italy in general, Greece, and Turkey, 1 in 30; in the Netherlands, France, and Prussia, 1 in 39; in Switzerland, the Austrian empire, Portugal, and Spain, 1 in 40; in European Russia and Poland, 1 in 44; in Germany, Denmark, and Sweden, 1 in 45; in Norway, 1 in 48; in Iceland, 1 in 53; in England, 1 in 58; and in Scotland and Ireland, 1 in 59. It must be borne in mind that data of this nature are to be taken as *approximations* to fact, instead of being actual facts, for the difficulties in the way of obtaining proper returns are very great. Still, even viewing them as mere approximations, no one could have anticipated such results. Who, from mere reflection on the subject, without having recourse to documents, would have placed Ireland so high in regard to health:—a country full of bogs, and where the bulk of the population are kept down at the starving point, potatoes being almost their only fare?

Taking the British isles together, we find that of all the European states they are the most favoured in regard to the chances of life. Of each million of inhabitants they lose only 18,200 annually; whilst the mortality is almost double in the countries washed by the Mediterranean sea. Next to these life is most certain in Norway and Sweden, three dying in the South of France for two in ancient Scandinavia, Denmark, and Germany. Nature and fortune have been as little lavish of the necessities of life in Russia and Poland as anywhere, yet here the inhabitants spin out their existence nearly one half longer than those of Italy, where “corn, and wine, and oil” run over, and “Plenty leaps

To laughing life from her redundant horn.”

The Russian is fed upon a wretched sort of sauerkraut, pickled cabbages and cucumbers, and a remarkably coarse black rye bread, yet he lives exactly twice the length of him who commands all the necessities and luxuries of the Austrian capital. Remarkable instances of longevity occur in Russia:—in 1821 it was found that in a population of forty-five millions (Asiatic Russia is not in-

cluded), about one million died. Of these 221 were above 105 years of age, 120 above 110, 78 above 115, 49 above 120, 16 above 125, 5 above 130; one attained the great age of between 145 and 150; and another had tenaciously adhered to life till he had reached the almost antediluvian term of existence, 155 years.

In France, the Netherlands, Prussia, Switzerland, Spain, Portugal, and the Austrian empire, the average time of life is nearly the same, one being cut off in forty annually. On the whole it has been calculated, taking one year with another, that in a population of 210,000,000 there occur 5,256,000 deaths every twelve months, the mortality being much greater in the southern than in the northern states, one-fortieth being the average. The former have 1 death in 36 persons, whilst the latter have only 1 death in 44 persons. Of one million of inhabitants in districts situated in the north of France, 22,700 die; in those which lie toward the south, 27,000 die. This is a difference of more than 4,000 deaths, equivalent to more than a two-hundredth part of the population.

Two great causes determine the rate of mortality to the population: these are the influence of climate and civilisation. The climate is peculiarly favourable to the prolongation of life, when it is cold and even rigorous, or when the humidity in the environs of the sea is combined with a low temperature. The smallest mortality on the continent of Europe occurs in maritime countries which are in the vicinity of the polar circle, such as Sweden and Norway. This is also the case in Russia, where climate is not aided by civilisation, which shows that the condition of the atmosphere has by far the most powerful influence over human health. In those southern climes, where a mild temperature and other circumstances seem to promise long life, the human race is exposed to the greatest risks. Under the blue and beautiful skies of Greece, the certainty of life is one-half less than among the frost and snows of Iceland. If we proceed to the torrid zone, the pernicious influence which is exercised over the existence of man by a high temperature is strikingly exemplified. Great variations also take place—the resistance of the vital principle in the tropics differing according to the races of men; the duration of life in some places is for the one double or triple what it is for the others. The following are examples:—BATAVIA in 1805—Europeans, 1 in 11 individuals; slaves, 1 in 13; Chinese, 1 in 29; Javanese (natives), 1 in 46. BOMBAY in 1805—Europeans, 1 in 18½; Mussulmans, 1 in 17½; Parsees, 1 in 24. GUADALOUPE, from 1816 to 1824—whites, 1 in 23½; freedmen, 1 in 35. MARTINIQUE in 1815—whites, 1 in 24; freedmen, 1 in 33. GRENADA in 1811—slaves, 1 in 22. This is an immense mortality, and presents a remarkable contrast with that of Madeira, the only colonial establishment within the temperate zone. Here the proportion is about 1 to 50.

The foregoing details relate merely to climate; we shall now examine how far an advancement in social economy has tended to decrease mortality. This is by far the most important part of the subject, because it is that over which man himself has control. He cannot alter the climate, except slightly in some localities by draining and cutting down wood; but his civilisation is entirely in his own hands, and by promoting it he increases his chances of life. The effects produced by improved modes of living, methods of cure, and other causes, on the general duration of existence, are ascertained by comparing the number of deaths which have taken place in a given time at different periods. From tables which have been drawn up, it appears that the mortality has in different countries decreased as under:—

In Sweden, nearly one-third in 61 years; in Denmark, two-fifths in 66 years; in Germany, two-fifths in 37 years; in Prussia, one-third in 106 years; in Wirtemberg, two-fifths in 73 years; in Austria, one-thirteenth in 7 years; in France, one half in 50 years; in Holland, one-half in 24 years; in England, one-half in 131 years; in Great Britain, one-eleventh in 16 years; in Canton of Vaud, one-third in 64 years; in Lombardy, one-seventh in 56 years; and in the Roman States, one-third in 62 years. Thus we see a striking difference in the mortality of countries at the present day from what it was in former times. If, in the same manner, we compare the deaths in the principal towns, the same results will be found to have taken place. The annual mortality has, in Paris, diminished more than one-third in 80 years; in London more than one-half in 178 years; in Berlin, nearly one-fourth in 72 years; in Geneva, three-fifths in 261 years; in Vienna, one-fourth in 80 years; in Rome one-half in 63 years; in Cambridge, two-fifths in 10 years; in Norfolk, one-fifth in 10 years; in Manchester, three-fifths in 64 years; in Birmingham, nearly two-fifths in 10 years; in Liverpool, one-half in 38 years; in Portsmouth, more than one-third in eleven years; in St. Petersburg,

nearly two-thirds in 40 years; and in Stockholm, more than one-third in 67 years.

The causes of the greatest mortality in the different countries and cities of Europe have been thus pointed out. The marshy humidity of the air, especially in hot countries; the effects of privation on the lower classes of society; the scarcity of the means of subsistence, or at least their rise in price, as compared with the wages of labour; pestilential diseases; unfavourable seasons, especially abrupt changes in the temperature; the closeness, dirtiness, and unhealthiness of private houses, prisons, infirmaries, and hospitals; the excessive use of spirituous liquors, and indulgence in drunkenness; unwholesome or unremitting labour, especially in childhood and youth; lastly war—but less in consequence of battles than forced marches, and frequently the mal-administration of armies. Such are the causes assigned by M. Jonnes. But we are of opinion that all of them, with the exception of the first, climate, are irrelevant to the question as to the causes of the difference of mortality in different countries, and for a very tangible reason. Those countries in which these evils prevail to the greatest extent are amongst the healthiest. Russia may be instanced as one; and here the mortality has remained the same for forty years. The influence of these evils on human life are more applicable to individual cities than to whole states. The causes of the diminution of mortality where civilisation is progressive, are—the draining of marshes, and the embanking of streams and rivers; the favourable division of public wealth, which affords each individual labour and subsistence; the abundance and good quality of the food of the people; the attention bestowed on children from birth, and continued in schools, manufactories, and public establishments; vaccination, and sanitary arrangements, which prevent the importation or development of contagious diseases; the low price of the productions of industry, which places them within the reach of the poor, who can thus provide against the inclemency of seasons; and lastly, the successful measures adopted for diminishing the insalubrity of towns, and especially of colleges, hospitals, theatres, prisons, churches, and other public establishments. In many places, however, these stand in great need of improvement.

In the three great countries of Western Europe, England, France, and Germany, where we may safely assert social amelioration has advanced with the greatest rapidity during the last century, the average mortality has decreased from 1 in 30 to 1 in about 39 or 40; thus, not only is immediate comfort secured by the promotion of civilisation, but the duration of human existence itself is extended by it. What an inducement for us to proceed with vigour in the good course which we are now pursuing! What a mighty influence every generation of men exercises over that which is to follow! This reflection ought to operate as a powerful stimulus to exertion in the way of disseminating knowledge, for by that means civilisation is best promoted.

EFFECTS OF POVERTY ON THE DOMESTIC AFFECTIONS.

I PROCEEDED to another evil of poverty—its disastrous influence on the domestic affections. Kindle these affections in the poor man's hut, and you give him the elements of the best earthly happiness. But the more delicate sentiments find much to chill them in the abodes of indigence. A family, crowded into a single and often narrow apartment, which must answer at once the ends of parlour, kitchen, bed room, nursery, and hospital, must, without great energy and self-respect, want neatness, order, and comfort. Its members are perpetually exposed to annoying, petty interference. The decencies of life can be with difficulty observed. Woman, a drudge and in dirt, loses her attractions. The young grow up without the modest reserve and delicacy of feeling in which purity finds so much of its defence. Coarseness of manners and language, too sure a consequence of a mode of life which allows no seclusion, becomes the habit almost of childhood, and hardens the mind for vicious intercourse in future years. The want of a neat orderly home is among the chief evils of the poor. Crowded in filth, they cease to respect one another. The social affections wither amidst perpetual noise, confusion, and clashing interests. In these respects, the poor often fare worse than the uncivilised man. True, the latter has a ruder hut, but his habits and tastes lead him to live abroad. Around him is boundless, unoccupied nature, where he ranges at will, and gratifies his passion for liberty. Hardened from infancy against the elements, he lives in the bright light and pure air of heaven. In the city, the poor man must choose between his close room and the narrow street. The appropriation of almost every spot on earth to private use, and the habits of society,

do not allow him to gather his family or meet his tribe under a spreading tree. He has a home, without the comforts of a home. He cannot cheer it by inviting his neighbours to share his repast. He has few topics of conversation with his wife and children, except their common wants. Of consequence, sensual pleasures are the only means of ministering to that craving for enjoyment which can never be destroyed in human nature. These pleasures, in other dwellings, are more or less refined by taste. The table is spread with neatness and order, and a decency pervades the meal, which shows that man is more than a creature of sense. The poor man's table, strewn with broken food, and seldom approached with courtesy and self-respect, serves too often to nourish only a selfish animal life, and to bring the partakers of it still nearer to the brute. I speak not of what is necessary and universal; for poverty, under sanctifying influences, may find a heaven in its narrow home; but I speak of tendencies which are strong, and which only a strong religious influence can overcome.—*Dr. Channing.*

BIOGRAPHICAL SKETCHES.

SIR WILLIAM JAMES, BART.

CHAIRMAN OF THE EAST INDIA COMPANY.

INSTANCES of men who, by the force of their natural endowments, unaided by anything but integrity and unwearied industry, have raised themselves from poverty to wealth and honours, are frequent; but such examples cannot be too often set before our eyes. The subject of the present memoir was one of this class.

William James was born at Milford Haven about the year 1721. His parents were of the humblest rank, and in his early years he himself was employed as a farmer's boy; but imbibing a desire for a seafaring life, he at the age of twelve years engaged himself on board a merchant vessel. The particulars of his youthful career have not been recorded; but in 1738 we find him serving under the gallant Sir Edward, afterwards Lord Hawke, in the West Indies: it is suspected, however, from circumstances, that he was not in the way of promotion as a midshipman, but might have acted in some other station which he had obtained rather by good behaviour than interest. Some years after, he procured the command of a ship in the Virginia trade; but he experienced little but misfortune on that occasion. He was taken prisoner by the Spaniards, and carried into the Havannah. From a dungeon in the island of Cuba both he and his men were at length released; but it was only to experience fresh calamities. Having embarked on board a brig for the colony of South Carolina, a very hard gale of wind came on the second day after their departure, and the vessel, which does not appear to have been calculated to encounter the occasional hurricanes of those latitudes, strained so much that the most imminent danger ensued. The pumps were set to work; the people unemployed at them were occupied in baling out the water; every possible exertion was made; but the vessel could not be kept afloat.

At length, Mr. James, and seven of the crew, despairing of any other means of safety, got into the boat with a little bag of biscuits and a keg of water; soon after this, the brig, as had been foreseen, went down. They remained twenty days in the boat exposed to the wind and waves, and experiencing the slow approaches of famine. The supply of fresh water being unfortunately very scanty, was regularly distributed in equal portions from the commander's snuff-box; and their bread was rendered distasteful by being wetted by the sea, which, during two whole days, made a breach over them. Being unprovided with a compass, they had no idea where they were, or towards what part they were driven: the appearance of any land, however, would have been grateful, and they at length enjoyed the delightful prospect on the twentieth day after the brig had sunk. It proved to be Cuba, the very same island whence they had set out, and the spot which they first reached was not ten miles distant from their old prison. But a prison had no longer any horrors for them, and they readily delivered themselves up to the Spaniards, who received them once more into captivity. Notwithstanding the severity of their sufferings, one only out of the eight perished; but all were more or less affected by the hardships they had experienced, and it was long before they recovered the perfect use of their limbs.

Having at length found means to return to England*, he entered into the service of the East India Company in 1747, at which period it was but a petty trading association; the merchants of Leadenhall-street were at that time the feudal tenants of the Mogul, and had not yet dreamed of being sovereigns of Hindostan. In their service he made two voyages as chief mate, and having evinced much good conduct and displayed considerable talents, he was appointed to the command of a new ship equipped for war, and called the *Guardian*, from the situation in which she was destined to be employed, and which led to his own future fortune and preferment. Soon after this he sailed from Bombay, with orders to protect the trade on the Malabar coast, then greatly annoyed by the depredations of Angria and other pirates.

An extensive tract, reaching nearly from Bombay to Goa, was formerly known as the "Pirate Coast." No situation can possibly be better adapted for the purposes of naval depredation; for although the general outline be apparently straight and uniform, the shore is everywhere niched with bays and recesses. The multitude of small ports afforded a secure asylum, while the elevated inland stations, being favourable to distant vision, fitted this neighbourhood to be the chosen seat of piracy. The shallowness of the harbours, and the strength of the country within, were well calculated to protect the freebooters from extirpation. During the time that the Mogul empire remained prosperous, care was taken to repress the outrages of these men, and Dunda Rajapore was the name of the harbour at which Arungzebe's fleet rendezvoused for that purpose under the command of the siddee, or high admiral.

One of the principal of these fastnesses was called Bancoote or Victoria, the latter of which names it still retains. Severn-droog, Sunderdoo, and Vingorla, are so many rocks situated in lat. 15° 22' 30", six or seven miles from the shore. The chief, however, yet remains to be mentioned: this is Gheriah, nearly midway between Bombay and Goa; and it appertained to the most noted freebooter, whose name was Angria, and who lived in a kind of regal state. In short, this was the Algiers of the Indian pirate coast, and had long been the residence of a succession of Angrias, the first of whom, Conagee Angria, an adventurer in the time of Arungzebe, having been entrusted by the Mahrattas with the command of the port of Severn-droog, betrayed his trust, declared himself independent of his master, extended his territories one hundred and twenty miles along the coast, and as far inwards as the Ghauts; while negroes, Mussulmans, and renegade Christians, flocking to his standard, this corsair and his successors became formidable by their power and depredations.

The nature of the service in which Captain James was now employed afforded him almost daily opportunities of ascertaining the strength, learning the habits, and even contesting the power of these marauders. During the two years occupied by him in conveying the merchant ships from Bombay and Surat to the Red Sea and the Gulf of Persia, and along the Malabar coast, from the Gulf of Cambay to Cape Comorin, he was frequently attacked by the vessels of the different piratical states. At one time, when he had nearly seventy sail under his protection, he was assailed by a large fleet of Angria's frigates and gallivats, not badly provided with guns, and, as usual, full of men. Having formed the line with his little squadron, consisting of the *Guardian*, Bombay *Grab*, and *Drake Bombketch*, he engaged the enemy and kept them in close action, sinking one of the largest gallivats, and obliging the rest to take shelter in Gheriah and Severn-droog, while his convoy got safe into Tellicherry.

It may easily be supposed that the fame of this action soon procured additional preferment to the commander. Accordingly, in the beginning of 1751, after a period of only four years' service, and but two from his first promotion to a ship, Captain James was appointed Commander-in-Chief of the East India Company's marine forces, and hoisted his broad pendant as Commodore, on board the *Protector*, a forty-four gun ship.

The depredations of pirates had rendered the navigation of single vessels extremely hazardous, and the recent capture of a Dutch fifty-gun ship, and part of her convoy, made them more than usually daring. It was resolved, therefore, to commence an immediate attack on this nest of marauders, and destroy some of their principal settlements. Accordingly, on April 2, 1755, Commodore James, on board the *Protector*, which was a fine stout vessel, with his old ship, the *Guardian*, the *Bombay*, and *Drake*, her former

consorts, and a few gallivats, sailed from Bombay, on an expedition from which great advantages were augured. Gheriah, the principal fortress and capital of Angria, appeared too formidable for so small a force; but Severn-droog, where his fleet often took shelter and refitted, afforded a better prospect of success, and a certainty of considerable booty to the victors. It was the second port on this coast in point of strength: batteries defended it along the whole extent of the shore, while the mouth of the harbour was protected by a castle mounting seventy pieces of cannon.

After reconnoitring the place, the English Commodore, having the advantage of a leading wind, steered his little fleet close to the walls, and commenced a severe fire on the garrison. The *Drake*, stationed at a greater distance in the rear, in the mean time threw in her bombs with considerable effect; and in less than three hours, the governor, who was unaccustomed to the horrors of a regular siege, surrendered the castle and the vessels in the harbour. Fort Victoria and four others next day followed the example of Severn-droog.

The success of this expedition served greatly to facilitate another of greater magnitude. On his arrival at Bombay, the usual station of his fleet, the commodore found Rear-Admiral Watson there with a considerable force; and the government deeming this an excellent opportunity to annihilate the power of Angria, consulted that officer on the best means of effecting it; when it was determined that Commodore James should be despatched to reconnoitre Gheriah. Accordingly, he set sail and arrived in the neighbourhood about dusk; stood close in under the walls, and in the course of the night fitted out his boat, in which he himself took all the soundings, examined all the bearings, and made himself intimately acquainted with the various channels leading to this celebrated fortress.

Having effected all this in the course of a few days, he returned to Bombay, and gave in his report to the English Admiral. The attack being immediately determined upon, the necessary troops, stores, &c., were embarked with all possible despatch, and Lieut.-Colonel, afterwards Lord Clive, was appointed to the command of the land forces. The united squadron, consisting of the Company's vessels before enumerated, and three line-of-battle ships, with several frigates, belonging to Great Britain, arrived off the destined port on the 10th of February, 1756, and, after a very short resistance, made themselves masters of this stronghold with the loss of only twenty men.

Tullagee Angria, the last of that name, escaped a few days before the attack, of which he had received intimation; but left behind him his wife and children, who, to the honour of the English Admiral, were treated with great humanity. But if the chief was careless of his offspring and insensible to the fate of his family, he was jealous at least of his wealth, for he carried away all his immense treasure, except about the value of £100,000 sterling, and thus prevented any further contention between the army and navy, who, according to Mr. Pennant, had nearly quarrelled about the division of the spoil before they had obtained it.

After distinguishing himself on several other occasions both as a skilful and intrepid combatant, and an accomplished seaman, and having realised a considerable fortune by his share of the prize-money of Severn-droog, Gheriah, &c., as well as by the gains resulting from his own mercantile transactions, he returned in 1759 to his native country, purchased an estate at Eltham in Kent, and soon after married Miss Goddard, a lady of a very respectable family in Wiltshire. The East India Company, in testimony of his services, presented him with a handsome gold-hilted sword, on the blade of which his exploits were enumerated. He now began to interest himself in the management of the Company's affairs, and being elected as a director, was appointed, first, deputy-chairman, and then chairman; offices of great consideration, and to which considerable influence is necessarily attached. At length, on July 25th, 1778, His Majesty was pleased to confer upon him a Baronetage: he also obtained a seat for a Cornish borough; was elected one of the Elder Brethren and Deputy Master of Trinity House; a Governor of Greenwich Hospital; and whenever he was not obliged to remain out by rotation, he was re-appointed, during more than twenty years, a Director of the East India Company.

Having been accustomed from his early youth to an active life, he was always busied about schemes of general importance. When Louis XVI. took part with the American colonies, and a war in consequence ensued between this country and France, Sir William planned the annihilation of the enemy's power in India, by the capture of Pondicherry, which was accordingly taken in conse-

* It has been reported that about this period Sir William married for the first time, and that his wife kept a public-house in Wapping called "The Red Cow;" but the truth of this story is uncertain.

quence of his suggestions, but restored at the Peace. The Company was so conscious of his merits upon this occasion, that he was presented with a service of plate.

His health now began to decline, and his constitution exhibited symptoms of premature decay, the consequence of the fatigues which he had endured, and the unhealthy climates in which he had resided in early life. Immediately before his daughter's marriage, some pre-sages of apoplexy were discovered; and on the very day that ceremony, which had his full assent, took place at St. Anne's church, he fell down in a fit and expired, December 16th, 1783, aged sixty-two.

His widow erected a monument to his memory in a very conspicuous situation, on the north-west brow of Shooter's Hill.

HOW TO LEARN GERMAN.

As the German language is so generally studied at present and so extensively useful, we think the following "*Hints for learning German*" may not be unacceptable.

Four years ago, when a friend and I had studied German for some months, we were induced, out of respect for a learned German then visiting England, and from whom we had received some instructions in the language, to undertake a pilgrimage from the opposite end of London to Great Alle-street, Whitechapel, for the purpose of hearing him preach in German. On the service commencing, our ears were almost stunned, and our risible muscles in some danger of being excited, by the strange jargon uttered by the clerk, not one syllable of which did we understand, but which we afterwards learned was a portion of the Scriptures. We hoped to be more fortunate when our friend should begin his part of the duty; but though our ears were in some measure accustomed to his voice, and his discourse was delivered with all the graceful polish of an orator, unaccompanied by the nasal twang of the less educated clerk, we were forced to confess, to his no small surprise, and perhaps disappointment, on being asked by him how we liked his sermon, that we only recognised the *Vater Unser* (Lord's Prayer), and understood nothing correctly but the *Amen*!

Anxious as we were to understand German as a spoken language, we were for sometime after this discouraged from again entering the walls of a German chapel, on account of our want of success in our first attempt, and in consideration of the waste of time in spending those moments which ought to be consecrated to the service of the Deity in listening to mere sound which conveyed no sense. About this time the first volume of that extraordinary but most fascinating book, "*The Doctor*," fell into our hands, in which the author recommends students in a foreign country wishing to acquire the language to frequent the national churches, and urging his own experience while studying at Leyden. The example of so great a writer as Southey (for he and no other can be the author of "*The Doctor*"), seconded by the advice of a kind friend, induced us to make a new effort to understand the German service. For this purpose, having furnished ourselves with a German Bible, we sallied forth in search of the German Chapel Royal, which is situated between Marlborough House and St. James's Palace: here, being comfortably installed in a luxurious pew, we patiently awaited the commencement of the sermon; when, straining every nerve, we were enabled to distinguish the book, chapter, and verse containing the text, to our no small gratification; and having found the place, we were thus furnished at least with the subject of the discourse. As the service is according to that of the Church of England, or nearly so, we next endeavoured to procure a German prayer-book, and readily found one to our mind at Bagster's in Paternoster-row; but although translated by the clergyman himself, we soon perceived that he read from an older version, and we therefore had great difficulty in following him. Our prayer-books, however, have proved of infinite service to us, and continue in use to this day; for as we generally contrive to attend an English church once every Sunday, as well as a German one, such is our love of the language that we always prefer using our German books instead of English ones, though no longer requiring them for the purpose for which they were originally intended.

After a month or two of close attendance at this chapel, and when we were beginning to make some progress, we were surprised, on arriving one Sunday at the usual time, to find the doors closed. On inquiring of the porter, we were informed that the building was undergoing extensive repairs, and that it would not be re-opened for divine worship for some weeks. We had a vague

idea of the existence of another German chapel somewhere about the Savoy, and after a few minutes' consultation, we agreed to direct our steps thitherward. On turning down Savoy-street, leaving the elegant little church on the right, (the whole appearing as if transported by magic from the precincts of some noble mansion in the country, and deposited but yesterday in the centre of London,) we found ourselves opposite the "German Lutheran Chapel."

The service was fast drawing to a conclusion as we entered, but we heard and saw sufficient to induce us to return the following Sunday. We were struck the first day by the earnest devotion of the venerable Dr. Steinkopff, who has been for thirty-six years pastor of this church, and who is so well known for his philanthropy, charity, and benevolence. Rapid was the progress which we made under his clear and distinct delivery; and no less exuberant was our delight, a very short time after hearing him, on finding that we were able to comprehend the whole scope of his sermon—it happened to be on prayer. Our days of probation were now at an end; Sunday was hailed (as it ought always to be) as a day of calm enjoyment, and we prepared for our rather long walk, in almost every state of the weather, with increased pleasure.

Here I cannot refrain from offering my tribute of praise to the friendliness and civility of the German character; and as a proof of Dr. Steinkopff's benevolence I may mention, that arriving one afternoon at the chapel an hour sooner than the service began, and finding the doors closed, we were about to retrace our steps, at the moment when the worthy Doctor was leaving his own house to visit one of his sick parishioners. Guessing our disappointment, he kindly entered into conversation with us (though not previously acquainted); informed us of the hour at which the service commenced; and on hearing that our knowledge of German was derived chiefly by our own exertions from books, kindly offered us the use of his library, and presented us, at the conclusion of the service, with a volume of his printed sermons, containing his portrait.

At all the German chapels which we have visited—and they are many—we have experienced the utmost readiness in being accommodated with a seat (generally the best in the chapel), in being supplied with hymn-books, and other marks of attention on the part of the hearers as well as officials. How well do we remember the good old sacristan at the Savoy, in the early days of our attendance, welcoming us with a smile; and if, as it did sometimes, though but rarely, happen that we were late, leading the way to our pew, singing the hymn as he went, and courteously pointing out the exact spot on his book as he left us! This cheerful old man, though upwards of 80 years of age, was as active and erect as an ordinary man of 60; and we were much grieved to hear, about two years ago, that he had been thrown down by an omnibus while crossing the Strand, and, though not much hurt at the time, expired in a few days afterwards from the united effects of the accident and the influenza, under which he had been labouring.

It is of infinite advantage to the student of German to accustom his ear to different voices, and we have experienced great benefit from hearing various clergymen. For this purpose, we do not confine ourselves to one church; and though the Savoy may be considered our head-quarters, we occasionally visit the other German chapels of the metropolis, of which the Hamburg Chapel in Trinity-lane claims precedence, being undoubtedly the most ancient; and from the difficulty we experienced in finding out the different German chapels, we hope a short notice of them may not be unacceptable to our young friends.

The Hamburg Chapel was the first Protestant German chapel established in London—as early as 1618. It was rebuilt on the same site in 1774. The present minister is Mr. Welthaus, from Hanover. There is service only once a day, (quarter to eleven a.m.) except on sacrament days, when it commences again at three p.m.

The Savoy Church is a branch from this patriarchal stock, which emigrated westwards in 1692. It is the largest German congregation in London. The elegant chapel was built by Sir William Chambers, 1768, on the site of part of the old palace; a Jesuit's chapel belonging to which had formerly been allotted to them by William III. Morning service commences at half-past ten a.m., and at half-past three p.m. Dr. Steinkopff (from Stuttgart) is the clergyman; and he also lectures on Friday evenings at seven o'clock.

St. George's Chapel, Whitechapel, is another branch of the Hamburg congregation; the influx of German artisans (chiefly sugar-bakers) about the middle of the last century rendering a place of worship at the East end of the town absolutely necessary.

Dr. Schwab (from Erfurt) preaches twice every Sunday. The morning service is at a quarter to eleven, and in the afternoon at three.

The German Reformed Church, which differs in some few points from the Lutheran, is situated in Hooper's-square, Goodman's Fields. The present excellent incumbent is Dr. Tiarks, a native of Jever, in Oldenburgh, and the well-known author of a Grammar and other standard elementary works on the German language.

The Chapel Royal, St. James's, was established by Prince George of Denmark, at the instigation of his chaplain, in 1705. It is an elegant building, fitted up with great luxury. The Queen Dowager occasionally occupies a seat in the gallery appropriated to the royal family. It is under the control of the Bishop of London, and the minister is paid by the government. The present incumbent is Dr. Küper (from Hanover), who was formerly preceptor to the Princess Charlotte of Wales. The service (which is only once a day) commences at half-past eleven o'clock.

TIME.

TIME is the most undefinable yet paradoxical of things: the past is gone, the future is not come, and the present becomes the past, even while we attempt to define it, and, like the flash of lightning, at once exists and expires. Time is the measurer of all things, but is itself immeasurable; and the grand discloser of all things, but is itself undisclosed. Like space, it is incomprehensible, because it has no limit, and it would be still more so if it had. It is more obscure in its source than the Nile, and in its termination than the Niger; and advances like the slowest tide, but retreats like the swiftest torrent. It gives wings of lightning to pleasure, but feet of lead to pain; and lends expectation a curb, but enjoyment a spur. It robs beauty of her charms, to bestow them on her picture; and builds a monument to merit, but denies it to a house: it is the transient and deceitful flatterer of falsehood, but the tried and final friend of truth. Time is the most subtle yet the most insatiable of depredators, and by appearing to take nothing, is permitted to take all; nor can it be satisfied until it has stolen the world from us, and us from the world. It constantly flies, yet overcomes all things by flight; and although it is the present ally, it will be the future conqueror of Death. Time, like the cradle of hope, but the grave of ambition, is the stern corrector of fools, but the salutary counsellor of the wise—bringing all they dread to the one, and all they desire to the other; but, like Cassandra (the prophetess), it warns us with a voice that even the sagest discredit too long, and the silliest too late. Wisdom walks before it, Opportunity with it, and Repentance behind it: he that has made it his friend will have little to fear from his enemies; but he that has made it his enemy will have little to hope from his friends.

THE INFANT AND WATCH.

WHAT 's time to thee, my merry boy,
That thus thou feign'st to mark his measure?
Thine infant hours are hours of joy,
And who would note the lapse of pleasure?
What reck's it where he points his finger?—
Morn, noon, or night 's the same to thee;
With thee, dear babe, he scarce may linger;—
Then give that golden toy to me!

As yet, thou canst not know its worth,
And, idler-like, perchance may'st lose it;
Or—in some freak of boisterous mirth—
Some mischief-working mood—misuse it!
What! would'st thou ope Time's inmost shrine,
And gaze upon each secret spring?
Go to!—thou might'st not then divine
What stays his course, or speeds his wing!

But let a few short years depart,
Of hope and fear, of joy and woe,
And he will then, unask'd, impart
Far more than 't will be bliss to know!—
The hidden springs that stir mankind,
That wring the heart, and rack the frame,—
The "fury passions" of the mind
Thou dost not even know by name!

Long may'st thou be unwise as now,—
For who would learn the way to woe!
Long sparkle thus that sunny brow,—
Those eyes their playful vigils keep!
Nay, struggle not, my merry boy—
Time hath not aught to do with thee!
'T were vain to count thy hours of joy;—
Then yield that glittering toy to me!

A. A. WATTS.

THE SEALED BOOK.

ON the supposition that the BIBLE is *not* a revelation, it is the most wonderful collection of documents that the world ever saw. No man who believes in the *past*—no man who understands wherefore we receive the poems of Homer as of undoubted antiquity, or believes that Alexander the Great, or Alfred the Great, or Virgil, or Milton, or Shakespeare, once existed—can hesitate, for a moment, to receive some of the portions of the Bible as being the earliest of preserved writings. And no man can look, with a thoughtful mind, at the accumulated mass, written in successive centuries, and handed down with such extraordinary care, without being disposed to reverence the collected works, even if he considered them as mere human productions. The origin and early history of the world; the laws of Moses; the Jews; Palestine; the life and doctrines of Christ; the actions of the apostles, and the history of the early Christian church; the varied characteristics of the different books of the Bible, and the vast amount of human intellect which has been expended on them; the wonderful events related, and the sublime doctrines taught; with all the poetry, pathos, and purity of their contents, make the books of the Bible wonderful now, as they have been wonderful in all past time; and poor and dull must that intellect be, which, even in the act of rejecting them as a revelation, does not freely admit that they are interwoven with the history, the feelings, the hopes, and prospects of MAN.

If, therefore, there be any kind of intolerance which we are disposed to tolerate, it is the indignant putting-down of some small-minded creature, who is busy nibbling at some isolated passage, and who seems to consider the Bible evidences as a house of cards—remove but one, and all fall down in ruin! Such a man may just as well take up a straw to fell an elephant, or try to blow down St. Paul's with a pop-gun. What is an apparent discrepancy, or even a positive difficulty, to the weight of centuries and of millenniums? Objectors of the class we allude to are always disposed (perhaps wrongly) to pass by in silent contempt. We would say to such a one, *read* before you talk; examine before you affirm. Some of these little objections have been answered nine hundred and ninety-nine times; and even if they never were, they no more invalidate the entire mass of evidence, than a pile of dust defaces the records themselves.

But Christians are also to blame in leading individuals to make such objections. They, also, too frequently, treat the Bible and its evidences as a house of cards—touch one, and bring down all! Nay, more—they take their own received interpretations of the Bible as if they were as infallible as the Bible itself; and to substitute another interpretation, as more consonant with the original, would be, to them, equivalent to blotting out so much of the Bible itself! Now, as we have repeatedly contended, the Bible has been written for a *progressive* creature; and upon this fact we rest our firmest belief in it, as a revelation. Not to mention the prophecies, which must necessarily be dim and dark till their fulfilment. We may take up any portion of it, and show, that while the Bible remains the same, the interpretation of it varies from age to age, as new discoveries throw fresh light upon it, and MAN advances in capacity to understand it. Thus, the intercourse which we now enjoy with the East, our increasing familiarity with Oriental manners and customs, and our additional knowledge of the topography and antiquities of Palestine, enable us to explain many passages, which, in the time of our fathers and grandfathers, were either a riddle, or explained in an absurd and ludicrous manner.

All good but unenlightened men shrank with horror from the supposed impiety of Galileo, in affirming that the earth moved ;—just as good but partially enlightened men in our day shrink from the idea, that creatures lived upon the earth ages before Adam was called into being. Yet the truths of geology will gradually pervade all current belief, just as the truths of astronomy did : as men get reconciled to the ideas which upset their previously-confirmed notions, they begin to examine ; and, lo, it turns out that science never really contradicts the Bible, but that the revelation is a book with many seals, which are gradually unsealed, as men are able to bear it.

There was a grave, good, and very learned man, who died upwards of a century ago (in 1737), who taught that the Old Testament contained a complete system of natural history, theology, and religion. He attacked the doctrine of gravitation, expounded by Newton, as being contrary to Scripture ; and having a profound acquaintance with the Hebrew Scriptures, he drew from them a very extraordinary system of philosophy, as well as religion, the adoption of which would bring us to this—that we must either reject all the discoveries of modern science, or else reject the Bible. His works were published, under the title of the “Philosophical and Theological Works of the late truly learned John Hutchinson ;” and many adopted his views, to a greater or less extent, and were called Hutchinsonians. Bishop Horne, for instance, the commentator on the Psalms, is said to have been a Hutchinsonian ; and other eminent men are named as having embraced Mr. Hutchinson’s views.

The idea that the Bible teaches SCIENCE, as well as RELIGION, is beginning to vanish ; and as men understand that there is a two-fold MORAL purpose in it,—one adapted to the capacities of those for whom the book or books were immediately written, and another for futurity,—they will see a grandeur in the Bible which no idea of its *fixedness* can possibly convey. Take, for instance, the descriptions of heaven at the close of the Book of Revelations. Does any intelligent, pious-minded Christian believe, that heaven will actually be a city whose walls and foundations are to be of precious stones ? that a river, clear as crystal, will actually flow through the midst of it ? that there will be in it an actual tree of life, yielding fruit every month ? No ! every intelligent Christian sees in all this a phraseology adapted to the capacities of the then Orientals, to whose minds the idea of happiness or felicity would be most strikingly conveyed by images drawn from, or connected with, those things the possession of which in the East was supposed to confer happiness ; such as glittering precious stones, cool crystal waters, and fruit-bearing trees, ever green, and producing whatever might be considered as most grateful to the palate. Yet we have heard poor ignorant fools laugh at those images of felicity, and sneeringly say that the Christian heaven was, after all, a very gross and literal matter ; and we have seen pious Christians puzzled how to reply, because, if they did not actually believe that heaven was to be composed of precious stones, they, at least, believed in something very like it !

We could pursue this subject much farther ; but we shall have future opportunities of doing so, and, meantime, we refer such of our readers as take any interest in it to an article, “Progressive Influence of Christianity,” which appeared in No. II. of the “LONDON SATURDAY JOURNAL.” We only repeat our belief, that the Bible is a sealed book, which is gradually unsealing as men advance in understanding and capacity ; that while the poorest and most ignorant man, in *any age or period*, can find enough in the New Testament to make him wise for time and eternity, the gradual and *right* elucidation of the Bible, as a whole, will employ the capacity of the thoughtful and the learned for many future years.

We have put together these observations, as a sort of general answer to several correspondents who have written about points connected with the Bible—such as geology, genealogy, the millennium, the Jews, &c. ; not even excepting an application to decide “cases of conscience.”

We give the following short extract from a long letter as a specimen :—

“During a short discussion lately between a Socialist and a Christian, it was brought forward, on the part of the Socialist, that the Scriptures were incorrect ; and he, to substantiate his assertion, said, it was clear that the evangelists Matthew and Luke gave different genealogies of Joseph, the supposed father of Christ ; Matthew saying Joseph was the son of Jacob, and Luke that he was the son of Heli. It was replied, the genealogy in Matthew went to prove Joseph’s descent from David, and that in Luke, Mary’s, the mother of Jesus. The Socialist said, that if that was stated, where can be found anything in the Bible to corroborate the opinion ? for, added he, both of the evangelists distinctly state they are Joseph’s.”

Our correspondent writes to us in an earnest and sincere spirit, but also as if he were apprehensive that the entire truth or falsehood of the entire Bible rested on this little difficulty ! He will find very satisfactory explanations in the notes to the “Pictorial Bible.” But supposing no explanation could be given at all, would it then necessarily follow that this apparent discrepancy should overthrow the entire book ? Many things in the Bible which were puzzles to our forefathers, are not puzzles to us ; and many things about which we have dim, indistinct notions, will become clearer and clearer, as THOUGHT and RESEARCH, digging amongst the ruins of ideas, bring out the buried gems of TRUTH.

THE USE OF OPIUM IN THE EAST.

OPIUM, which is but sparingly administered as an opiate medicine in England, is an article of great consumption in Oriental countries. This drug, the abuse of which entails misery and premature death upon those addicted to its too frequent use, has more than once threatened to cause an entire stoppage of trade between Europe and China, and thus to put an end to the annual circulation of *eleven millions seven hundred thousand pounds sterling* of British capital alone*.

The opium-trade with China is involved in some singular and perplexing circumstances. The Chinese government, combining the most rigid despotism with the patriarchal form, has looked upon the increasing growth of opium-smoking with great alarm. The emperor, who is considered the father of a family, (a large one, for it consists of *three hundred and sixty-one million souls*,) has consequently long since forbidden the importation of the pernicious drug, and imposes the most severe restrictions upon every description of foreign trade, to prevent its being smuggled into the country. But where there is an enormous and increasing demand for an article on the one hand, and a constant and ready supply to be had on the other, precautions, however elaborate or strictly enforced, are always found insufficient for effecting their object.

The opium-merchants stand in a curious predicament. The emperor, although continually fulminating the most severe edicts, is, it is suspected, together with most of his court, an opium-smoker himself ; so that, if his own orders were obeyed, he, or at all events the upper classes of China, would be deprived of an enjoyment, which, vicious as it is, has become so inveterate a habit, that it would be next to impossible for them to abandon it. The evil has, however, of late become so extensive and notorious, that the wavering deceitfulness of issuing the strictest prohibitions against the importation of opium, and at the same time conniving at its introduction into China, can no longer be practised ; and of late the government has appeared to be really in earnest.

By far the largest portion of the opium smuggled into China is the produce of British India : hence the exchange of commodities between the British and the Chinese exhibits a great moral injustice. We supply a drug which demoralises the Chinese population ; while they, in return, freely produce for us the tea-plant, from which we derive a beverage so wholesome and innocuous, that it has almost become one of the necessities of life. Whatever may be our opinions about Chinese arrogance, and whatever may be the result of the open quarrel between us and the Celestial Empire, there can be no question that our opium-smuggling has

* Statements of the Canton Chamber of Commerce, making that amount to have been circulated between the 1st of July, 1837, and the 30th June, 1838 ; quoted in the “Bombay Times,” May 25th, 1839.

met with a proper check; for our opium-trade stands on the same ground as the slave-trade, destroying the bodies and souls of men for "filthy lucre's sake."

Although many species of the *Cistus* produce the gum labdanum, it is the *Cistus creticus*, or Turkish poppy, which brings forth the largest quantities and best quality of that drug. The gum labdanum exudes from the glands of the leaves, from which it was, in ancient times, collected by a curious expedient. Goats were driven among the shrubs, when the substance adhering to their hair and beards was afterwards separated from the animals and purified. Now, however, that much larger quantities are demanded for the supply of an extensive commerce, a peculiar instrument is employed for that purpose; this is a sort of rake, with a double row of long leather straps. The whole process is described by Seiber, in his "Voyage to Crete," and is nearly the same as that employed both in Hindostan and Turkey:—"It was in the heat of the day, and not a breath of wind stirring—circumstances necessary to the gathering of labdanum. Seven or eight country fellows, in their shirts and drawers, were brushing the plants with their whips, the straps whereof, by rubbing against the leaves of this shrub, licked up a sort of odoriferous glue sticking to the leaves; this is the part of the nutritious juice of the plant which sweats through the texture of those leaves like a fatty dew, in shining drops as clear as turpentine. When the whips are sufficiently laden with this grease, they take a knife, and scrape it clear off the straps, and make it up into a mass of cakes of different sizes."

A man who is diligent may gather three pounds per day, or more, for the work is rather unpleasant than laborious; because it must be done in the sultry time of the day and in the deadest calm; for the wind blows dust upon the plants, which, from the glutinous character of the gum, often entirely covers them: hence, in spite of the careful purification it afterwards undergoes, the best opium is not always entirely free from filth. When clarified and made up into cakes, it is packed in chests and exported.

Opium is transported from Benares, Batavia, (which produce the best,) and other districts of British India, in vessels built expressly for that particular service, and called clippers. They are generally about 300 tons burthen, barque-rigged, and fitted up in the first style. They are often perfect models of naval architecture, are manned with Lascars, and are reputed to sail very fast. When freighted, they make their way to China in a manner characteristic of their reckless errand. Unmindful of the time of year or state of weather, obliged to "crack on" in spite of either, they are in hourly danger of losing their masts, or of running, during the night, upon some of those reefs which stretch out from the land, in the straits between the Bay of Bengal and the Yellow Sea.

Unable to land their cargoes openly, the opium is transhipped from the clippers into armed receiving vessels, stationed off the coast for that purpose. From thence it is discharged, in the night-time, into native boats, called, from the number of their oars, *centipedes*. These many-footed smugglers have to creep and steal through the narrow channels between the forts, and fight their way, if opposed by the mandarin or government boats, which are always lurking in every corner. Desperate affrays sometimes take place; but in general the "centipedes" go in a body of twenty or thirty, and brave all opposition*.

Immense quantities of opium are consumed in China. The Rev. Mr. Gutzlaff says, "There is, perhaps, in the whole history of commerce, no instance of the increased consumption of any article equal to that of opium. The hundreds of chests have become as many thousands, and these, again, are becoming as many tens of thousands; and where will the quantity cease to increase, if it goes on at the same progressive rate?" The manner of consuming it is by boiling it in water, and then smoking it in peculiarly-constructed pipes, like tobacco, whilst the wretched debauchee lies down. He very soon falls asleep, and on awaking takes a cup of tea, and again has recourse to his fatal pipe. This process is repeated till the smoker loses all consciousness, and he remains in a sort of trance until the powers of the drug have been exhausted upon his system.

The habitual opium-smoker might be recognised amidst a multitude. He is a walking shadow; his eyes stare with a want of expression, as if they were always gazing on vacancy; his limbs tremble, and his gait is tottering; his whole bodily frame is deranged, and his mental powers prostrated. Few opium-smokers in China reach the age of forty. The vice is not confined to one particular class, for all who can procure the drug make use of it; neither do they scruple to employ dishonesty to obtain it. The

rich are, of course, the chief consumers; but, despite the almost universal extent of the vice, when once a man gets a character for indulging in the habit, he is looked upon with distrust, and loses his respectability.

In other parts of the East, particularly in Turkey and Egypt, opium-eating is practised to a melancholy excess. In a market-place near the mosque of Solymania, at Constantinople, are situated the coffee-houses where many who indulge in the pernicious habit resort. Seated on a bench outside the door, the *Theriaki*, or opium-eaters, await those reveries, those unnatural excitements of the imagination, which the drug produces on their minds. The dose varies from three grains to a drachm; but those who are confirmed in the practice greatly exceed the latter quantity. The effects produced are, of course, violent in proportion to the quantity taken. An ordinary dose does not take effect before two hours, but lasts for four or five.

Excited by the action of the drug upon the brain, the opium-eater begins to talk incoherently; his features become flushed, his eyes exhibit an unusual brilliancy, and the whole countenance assumes a wild expression. The after-debility, both moral and physical, is in proportion to this unusual excess of spirits. The appetite is soon destroyed; every fibre of the body trembles; and the nervous system is so completely disordered, that the victim is wretched until the hour arrives for taking his daily dose. When its delightful influence begins, he is all fire and animation.

Some opium-eaters compose excellent verses, and others address the bystanders with animation and eloquence. At Cairo, opium is compounded with conserves and aromatic spices, so as to produce different effects upon the taker, varying with the drugs with which it is mixed. One kind, it is said, causes the person who swallows it to manifest his pleasure by singing; another preparation will make him chatter; a third excites to dance; a fourth particularly affects the vision, in a pleasurable manner; while a fifth compound is simply sedative. The use of opium, though frequent in Egypt, is unlawful, and those who indulge in it are looked upon with the same degree of disgust as the habitual drunkard is regarded in England*.

Dr. Madden, while in Constantinople, resolved to experience the effects of the opium-dose, by taking it himself. "I commenced," says he, "with one grain. In the course of an hour and a half it produced no perceptible effect; the coffee-house keeper was very anxious to give me an additional pill of two grains, but I was contented with half a one; and in another half-hour, feeling nothing of the expected reverie, I took half a grain more—making in all two grains in the course of two hours. After two hours and a half from the first dose, I took two grains more; and shortly after this dose, my spirits became sensibly excited. The pleasures of the sensation seem to depend on the universal expansion of mind and matter. My faculties appeared enlarged—everything I looked on seemed increased in volume. I had no longer the same pleasure when I closed my eyes which I had when they were open; it appeared to me as if it was only external objects which were acted on by the imagination, and magnified into images of pleasure; in short, it was the 'faint exquisite music of a dream' in a waking moment. I made my way home as fast as possible, dreading at every step that I should commit some extravagance. In walking, I was hardly sensible of my feet touching the ground; it seemed as if I slid along in the street, impelled by some invisible agent, and that my blood was composed of some ethereal fluid, which rendered my body lighter than air. I got to bed the moment I reached home: the most extraordinary visions filled my brain all night. In the morning I rose pale and dispirited; my head ached; my body was so debilitated, that I was obliged to remain on the sofa all the day, dearly paying for my first essay at opium-eating."

To return to China. During the year 1837, no fewer than 16,916 chests of opium were exported to Canton. Each chest containing 120 pounds, makes the gross weight of opium sold to the Chinese during that year amount to 2,029,920 lbs.; for which were paid to the Bengal merchants two millions and a half sterling.

We perceive, from a newspaper paragraph, that it is affirmed that opium eating has increased so much in Great Britain recently, that the insurance societies are beginning to take the alarm, as the habit of opium eating has a most destructive influence on life. It is affirmed, also, that this increase of a bad habit may be traced to the spread of temperance societies. We should like to see this assertion disproved or confirmed.

* "The Fan Qui in China," by C. T. Downie, Esq. 8vo. 1839.

* See "Lane's Manners and Customs of the Modern Egyptians," vol. I. p. 124; vol. II. p. 40.

WHAT EDUCATION IS.

EDUCATION does not mean merely reading and writing, nor any degree, however considerable, of mere intellectual instruction. It is, in its largest sense, a process which extends from the commencement to the termination of existence. A child comes into the world, and at once his education begins. Often at his birth the seeds of disease or deformity are sown in his constitution; and while he hangs at his mother's breast, he is imbibing impressions which will remain with him through life. During the first period of infancy, the physical frame expands and strengthens; but its delicate structure is influenced for good or evil by all surrounding circumstances—cleanliness, light, air, food, warmth. By and by, the young being within shows itself more. The senses become quicker; the desires and affections assume a more definite shape. Every object which gives a sensation—every desire gratified or denied—every act, word, or look of affection or of unkindness, has its effect—sometimes slight and imperceptible, sometimes obvious and permanent—in building up the human being; or, rather, in determining the direction in which it will shoot up and unfold itself. Through the different states of the infant, the child, the boy, the youth, the man, the development of his physical, intellectual, and moral nature goes on; the various circumstances of his condition incessantly acting upon him. The healthfulness or unhealthfulness of the air he breathes; the kind and the sufficiency of his food and clothing; the degree in which his physical powers are exerted; the freedom with which his senses are allowed or encouraged to exercise themselves upon external objects; the extent to which his faculties of remembering, comparing, reasoning, are tasked; the sounds and sights of home; the moral example of parents; the discipline of school; the nature and degree of his studies, rewards, and punishments; the personal qualities of his companions; the opinions and practices of the society, juvenile and advanced, in which he moves; and the character of the public institutions under which he lives—the successive operation of all these circumstances upon a human being from earliest childhood constitutes his education; an education which does not terminate with the arrival of manhood, but continues through life—which is itself, upon the concurrent testimony of revelation and reason, a state of probation or education for a subsequent and more glorious existence.—*The Educator.*

SINGAPORE,

AND THE OTHER BRITISH SETTLEMENTS IN THE STRAITS OF MALACCA.

THE settlement of Singapore, and our other possessions in the Straits of Malacca, are, although their names may be familiar to the ear, comparatively but little known to any, save those who, by commercial or professional relations, have been led to pay attention to these outposts of British authority. Indeed, the immense advantages that might be derived from a more extended traffic among the countless islands of the Indian Archipelago have been much neglected, and the long-permitted monopolies of the Dutch seem almost to have paralysed the efforts of the free trader. The recent infringements by the Dutch of the treaty of 1824, to which we shall presently allude, and their undisguised attempts to check our Eastern trade as much as lies in their power, are beginning to excite considerable interest in the commercial world, from which we augur very favourable results, as likely to lead to the development of resources as yet unexplored. A very excellent Political and Statistical Account of the British Settlements in the Straits of Malacca has in good season been put forth by Mr. Newbold*. We last week extracted from it a very curious account of the Benuas, or wild tribes of the peninsula of Malacca; and we shall now avail ourselves of it to lay before our readers some particulars of the present state of Singapore, and our other Malayan possessions.

"The Straits of Malacca to the north," says Mr. Newbold, "and the Straits of Sunda to the south, are the two great channels of intercourse between China, the Indian Archipelago, Continental

India, and the Western world. The Straits of Malacca immediately connect the Bay of Bengal with the China Seas, and are formed by the island of Sumatra and the Malay peninsula—the latter stretching out from the great continent of Asia in a south-by-east direction, and terminating within a degree and a half of the equator, constitutes the eastern limits; while the northern part of the great island of Sumatra, taking an almost parallel direction, constitutes the opposite or western boundary. Geographically speaking, these straits lie between the equator and the 9th degree of north latitude, and the 94th and 104th degrees of east longitude.

"Below the northern entrance, close to the Malayan peninsula, and nearly parallel with Achin Head, the northern point of Sumatra, lies the small island of Pinang, the site of our first settlement; 260 miles farther down the Straits, on the coast of the peninsula, stands our next establishment, Malacca; 120 miles below Malacca, close to the south-eastern extremity of the peninsula, and almost commanding the entrance into the China Seas, stands our latest and most thriving settlement, Singapore, on an island separated by a narrow strait from the mainland.

"With the exception of a small extent of territory on the peninsula, opposite Pinang and around Malacca, the coasts on both sides are in possession of Malay chiefs, who are generally notorious for their encouragement of piracy; and the numerous jungly inlets are the resort of professed buccaners or needy fishermen.

"The Malayan peninsula, properly so called, extends from latitude 8° 9' N. to latitude 1° 22½' N., where it terminates at Point 'Romania,' or, more correctly speaking, Ramúnia; the most southerly land of continental Asia. To the north it is connected with the great continent of India, by the isthmus of Kraw, which, according to Forrest, in its narrowest part does not exceed ninety-seven miles across from sea to sea. He states, that by this isthmus an overland intercourse, for the conveyance of letters to and from China, might be established, which would obviate the necessity of going round Point Ramúnia, by the Straits of Malacca and Singapore; there being a navigable river on the west side, where the portage is but six hours from another river, called the Tomfong, which falls into the Gulf of Siam, near the Larchin Islands. Natives of this part affirm that a canal might easily be made across the peninsula, connecting the Bay of Bengal with the China Seas, by joining the two rivers. This is a subject well worthy the attention of government.

"Prior to the close of the last century, Great Britain had no settlement in the Straits, beyond petty factories at Achin [Sumatra] and Quedah [on the mainland to the north of Pinang]. In July, 1786, the island of Pinang was transferred by Captain Light to the East India Company; an establishment was formed, and Captain Light judiciously placed at the head of it. At this time the Dutch were in possession of Malacca and of Rhio, on the island of Bintan, near Singapore. Malacca was occupied by the British in 1795; and, lastly, Singapore in 1818. Malacca was restored to Holland at the peace of Amiens in 1801; again taken at the recommencement of hostilities in 1807; restored after the peace in 1818, and resumed a third time in 1825 by the British, in whose possession it still remains."

The population of the Straits is of a mixed character. The Malays constitute about one-half, the Chinese one-sixth, of the whole. Settlers from continental India rank next in number; and the remainder is made up of Europeans, Siamese, Caffres (slaves), Javans, Burmese, Bugia, and Balinese, and a few Arabs, Jews, and Armenians. The total, in 1836, amounted to 153,230.

Mr. Newbold gives some particulars concerning the Chinese part of the population, which are curious. "The Chinese," he says, "it is well known, are emigrants from China. They are widely scattered over the principal islands of the Eastern Archipelago, and the Ultra Gangetic nations, including Siam, Tonquin, Cochin China, Cambodia, Laos, and the Malayan peninsula, where their number is estimated at nearly a million. In the British settlements in the Straits, their number is not less than 28,854. Some persons have ascribed their emigration to the influence of European protection; but this can hardly be the case, since it is known by the natives to have continued from a very remote period. The early European navigators found colonies of Chinese scattered over Java, Borneo, and other islands. They are also located in states removed from the pale of British dominion;

* Political and Statistical Account of the British Settlements in the Straits of Malacca—viz. Pinang, Malacca, and Singapore; with a History of the Malayan States of the Peninsula of Malacca. By T. I. Newbold, Esq., Lieut. 23d Madras Light Infantry, &c. &c.—Two Vols. 8vo.—Murray, 1839.

in those of Siam, Borneo, Tringanu, Pohang, and in numberless others.

"Wherever money is to be acquired by the peaceful exercise of agriculture, by handicrafts, by the opening of mines of tin, iron, or gold, amidst savage hordes and wild forests, there will be found the greedy Chinese. The *auri sacra fames* is with them a ruling passion: the certainty of being subjected to extortion by the native chiefs, the probability of encountering robbery, and even death, have scarcely any influence in deterring them from the eager pursuit of gain. The cause of emigration is almost invariably pecuniary want or political necessity. The dense population of the Celestial Empire embraces a large proportion of paupers, who are a burden to the state. To disencumber itself of this burden, the government throws few obstacles in the way of the poorer classes of its subjects quitting the country (a practice, however, diametrically opposite to its ancient laws); but takes care to provide for the future increase of its revenue, by encouraging, as much as possible, the return to their native country of all who have enriched themselves with the spoils of 'barbarian lands.' To this object tends the strict inhibition of the egress of females from the ports of China. Men who have left wives and children behind, naturally desire to revisit their homes; while the unmarried are induced to return, in order to take unto themselves wives from the tiny-footed daughters of Han. All classes, too, are imbued, by early education, with a deep veneration for the ashes of their ancestors, to which the tenets of their religion bind them to pay stated visits. Some few, however, of the many settlers, who live in a state of concubinage with the females of the places in which they are located, and their descendants, remain permanently fixed."

Mr. Newbold observes upon the great drainage which these active birds of passage make from the funds of the countries they visit. As an instance of the great extent to which it is carried, he quotes the statement of Capt. Low, who says, "that when Pinang contained only 3000 Chinese, the annual remittance to China from the proceeds of gambling alone was estimated at 10,000 Spanish dollars." Mr. Newbold thinks that this systematic drainage should be checked, and, if possible, the greater part of the stream turned to account in the country whence it derives its source. This we fear it would be difficult to achieve without putting a stop to the emigration altogether; and it is evident that such a course would be very disadvantageous to the interests of those who at present employ the Chinese, who are far better workmen, and infinitely more industrious than any other labourers to be found in the straits. "The wages of the three following classes," says Mr. Newbold, "for ordinary labour, will afford some idea of their relative industry and usefulness. A Chinese gets from four to six Spanish dollars a month; a Kling (Hindoo), from three to four and a half; and a Malay from two and a half to four and a half. The Panghulu, or headman, should have at least from five to seven dollars. A Chinese carpenter will earn about fifteen dollars a month; a Kling, eight, and a Malay, only five. Malay women and children employed in weeding get from three to eight cents per diem.

"The emigrants in the Straits are chiefly from Canton and Fokien, and from Macao. They follow the occupations of agriculturists, pepper and spice planters, shoemakers, goldsmiths, blacksmiths, gunsmiths, carpenters, bakers, or miners. A few, in most instances natives of Fokien, rise to be merchants, in which capacity they exhibit a strong propensity to speculate largely—a spirit probably identical with that of gambling so commonly evinced. The Canton emigrants are the best miners and artisans."

Mr. Newbold gives the following character of the Chinese, which we have good reason for believing to be a very fair estimate of that singular nation. The secret fraternities which he refers to, bear a strong resemblance to those trade associations which are common with us, by whose means the mechanic who "seeks to better himself" may traverse the kingdom armed with his "Secretary's pass," or by whatever other name the mystic symbol of initiation may be known, certain of a "fraternal" reception wherever he may wander.

"The character of the Chinese," says Mr. Newbold, "may be summed up in a few words. They are active, industrious, persevering, intelligent, educated sufficiently to read, write, and to use the swampan or reckoning-board. They are entirely free from prejudices of caste and superstition, which are grand stumbling-blocks to the natives of India. On the other hand, they are selfish, sensual, ardent lovers of money, though not misers, inveterate gamblers, and often addicted to smoking opium. The Chinese will expose himself to all dangers for the sake of gain, though he would not stir a finger to save a drowning comrade. They make

bad soldiers, it is said; but the experiment has not, I believe, been yet properly tried under British authority. They are capable of any crime, provided they run no direct personal risk. In small bodies, when well looked after, and ruled by the strong hand of power, they form an excellent class of subjects; but when the reins of Government are slack, they are apt to turn refractory and rebellious.

"The secret fraternities in which they enrol themselves, for mutual protection and support, prove powerful engines for political combinations, as the Dutch have repeatedly experienced during their long administration in Java and in the Malayan states. In China itself these societies are deemed so dangerous to the government, as to be interdicted under penalty of death. At Pinang, in 1799, they set the administration at defiance, and strong measures were necessary to reduce them to obedience. Even in the present day, the ends of justice are frequently defeated both at Pinang, Malacca, and Singapore, by bribery, false swearing, and sometimes by open violence, owing to combinations of these fraternities formed for the purpose of screening guilty members from detection and punishment. In European settlements they are under the general control of an officer or headman, styled 'Capitan,' who receives a salary from government, and is responsible, in some measure, for the orderly conduct of his countrymen, whose representative and official organ he is. Their interior affairs, disputes, and private interests, are arranged by the heads of their respective Kongsis, or fraternities."

We have allowed ourselves to occupy a greater space than we otherwise should have done with these particulars concerning the Chinese character, since all that relates to that singular people is at present possessed of peculiar interest. We shall now proceed to give a brief glance at the recent conduct of the Dutch in relation to Eastern affairs, and then touch upon the important settlement of Singapore.

In the year 1824 a treaty was concluded with the Dutch, by which England, in her eagerness to obtain one desired object—the consolidation of her Eastern dominions—bound herself, perhaps inconsiderately, in too strict conditions. The Dutch were in possession of the twice-conquered Malacca, and of some decayed factories on the continent of India; we had settlements on the rich island of Sumatra, and everything seemed to favour the extension of our influence over many other places among the southern archipelago, now shut out from our colonisation, which would have gone far to upset Dutch monopolies. Prospective advantages, however, appear to have given place entirely, in 1824, to immediate convenience; and as the price of Malacca, and the Dutch-Indian factories, together with the gracious permission of his Dutch Majesty to occupy Singapore, of which we were already in full and free possession, under a treaty with the native owners, we surrendered all our settlements on Sumatra, and entered into an agreement that for the future no British settlement should be formed on that island; that no treaty should be concluded by British authority with any native prince, chief, or state therein; that no British establishment should be made on the Carimon islands, or on the islands of Battam, Bintan, Lingin, or any of the other islands south of the straits of Singapore, nor any treaty concluded by British authority with the chiefs of those islands. This sweeping clause politically shuts us out from the richest part of Borneo, the tin mines of Banca, the islands of Billiton, Madura, Bali, Bombah, Sumbawa, Flores, and nearly the whole of the Celebes, in addition to the loss of Achin and the rest of Sumatra. The Dutch still retain Java and the Spice islands; and until the odious monopoly of the very valuable produce of these islands be abolished, free trade can hardly be expected to exist in the archipelago.

By the provisions of the treaty it was mutually stipulated by the contracting powers that their subjects should be reciprocally admitted to trade with each other on the footing of the most favoured nations, and that the duty charged should in no case exceed double the amount levied upon the subjects of the power imposing the duty. The Dutch have, within these few years, grossly infringed these conditions, and have almost undisguisedly shown their desire to exclude us entirely from any participation in the benefit of traffic with the Southern Archipelago. Their conduct in some respects resembles that of the dog in the manger, for so far from themselves seeking fully to develop the resources of these islands, they do all in their power to discourage the natives from any further exertion than just suits their own purposes, and instead of seeking to extend the blessings of civilization, they look upon it as inimical to the monopoly they would fain establish. These observations may appear very harsh, but they are

fully borne out by the account of the state of many of these islands given in the "voyage of the Himmaleh" noticed in the 19th Number of the LONDON SATURDAY JOURNAL.

"In the commencement of 1834," says Mr. Newbold, "the Batavian government took upon itself to increase the duty of 35 per cent. (also illegal), imposed since February, 1824, upon all imported cotton and woollen goods of British manufacture from Singapore, to the exorbitant height of 70 per cent. And, not satisfied with this, towards the close of the same year, it actually passed a resolution, dated 14th November, prohibiting in effect the importation from Singapore of these articles into any of the Dutch possessions and dependencies in the Eastern Archipelago, saving only the three principal ports of Batavia, Samarang, and Surabaya, in the island of Java, by enacting that importations should not take place into any other than the said three ports, unless the goods were accompanied by a certificate from the Comptroller of Customs at Batavia, Samarang, or Surabaya, that they had first been imported into and exported from one of these ports. This act has not only blighted the profitable commerce of Singapore in these articles with all the ports of Sumatra, Banca, and the vast islands of Borneo and Celebes, which are under the control of the Dutch, but has driven away much of the native craft that used to frequent the harbour of Singapore into Dutch ports; thus infringing also the 4th article of the same treaty, which stipulates that nothing shall be done to impede a free communication of the natives of the Eastern Archipelago with the ports of the two governments respectively, or of the subjects of the two governments with the ports belonging to native powers."

A petition to Council has been forwarded from Singapore, setting forth the conduct of the Dutch, but nothing, or at least nothing effectual, has yet been done to remedy the evil; and by the latest advices from Singapore, we learn that the Dutch still adhere to their unjust policy, and not content with their other infringements of the treaty, are actively engaged in pushing their conquests in Sumatra, with the avowed purpose of excluding us from the trade, yet more effectually, by their occupation of ports hitherto in the hands of natives, and consequently open to us.

It is surely time that a lesson upon the law of nations should be read to these monopolists, and since Captain Dalgetty's favourite maxim, "*Fides et fiducia sunt relativa*," is on all hands allowed to be strictly applicable to commercial treaties, they will have "no just cause to blame us," if we consider this obnoxious treaty as virtually annulled. Until this shall be declared to be the case, the islands of the Archipelago will never emerge from barbarism; it is Dutch policy to perpetuate ignorance, and not until British capital and intelligence have free play will these rich and fertile countries enjoy the benefits of moral or physical culture.

Quitting this disagreeable subject, let us turn to Singapore, a most remarkable example of the effects of a liberal and enlightened policy (we quote from Mr. Newbold's book). "Singapore, or, more properly speaking, Singhapura, is an island situated near Point Ramúnia, or Romania, the southern limit of continental Asia, at the extremity of the Malayan Peninsula, from which it is divided by a narrow strait, in many parts not exceeding half a mile in breadth. This channel was formerly used by navigators sailing between India and China. The average length east and west of the island is twenty-five miles, by eleven in breadth, giving an area of 275 square miles. About nine miles south of the island runs a chain of islets, under British sway, frequented by fishermen and pirates; the whole within a circumference of about 100 miles. The channel flowing between them and the island just described, forms the present strait of Singapore—the great thoroughfare of Indian, European, and Chinese traffic. A narrow passage, called New Harbour, has lately been discovered to the west of Singapore, through which vessels can pass and avoid the circuitous route by St. John's."

"Singapore, and most of the islets in the vicinity, are covered with luxuriant jungle to the water's edge, presenting to the eye of the voyager a scene that has repeatedly excited the most rapturous admiration. The surface of the island of Singapore is low and undulating, in some parts rising into rounded hills covered with jungle; the intervening flats, and some low tracts near the coast, are swampy. The soil of the flats is generally blackish, from the great proportion of the decayed vegetable matter it contains; while that on the hills is red of various shades. The climate resembles that of Malacca*; though, from the circumstance of its

not having such regular alternations of the land and sea breezes, it is said to be much hotter, and not so healthy. The thermometer, Fahrenheit, ranges from 71° to 89°. Singapore being nearer the equator than Pinang and Malacca, the influence of the monsoons is even less felt there than at either of those settlements. The island is kept in a state of perpetual verdure by frequent tropical showers.

"There appears to be little doubt that the alluvial soil of Singapore, lying as it does on the face of a country in most parts well supplied with the requisite temperature and moisture, provided it be of sufficient depth, is fully capable of producing, with profit to the cultivator, nutmegs, pepper, sugar, cotton, coffee, and gambier*. Cloves have been attempted, but the trees have generally died away at the age of five or six years. Nutmegs have succeeded, as well as coffee and pepper. The latest accounts state, that so confident are the Chinese of success in this article (coffee), that they are everywhere extending their plantations, and there are now several with 2000 to 3000 young plants coming up. The produce of the Chinese pepper-gardens, in 1836, is estimated at 10,000 piculs. Speculations in the cultivation of cotton have been entered into by several European public-spirited individuals with every prospect of success. For rice, the staff of life in the East, Singapore is dependent on Java, Bengal, and Sumatra: for fruits, pigs, poultry, and cattle, in great measure on Malacca. The coral reefs and shoals, in the vicinity of Singapore, furnish that delicate fern-like sea-weed, called by the Malays *aggar-aggar* (the *Fucus saccharinus*), in abundance. It forms an article of considerable export to China. The Chinese use it in their glues and varnishes. It is made into a very fine jelly by Europeans and native Portuguese. The average produce annually is 6000 piculs, at three dollars a picul."

The British flag was first hoisted at Singapore in 1819. When Malacca was given up to the Dutch in the preceding year, the want of another British settlement in the States was very forcibly felt, and it was at first proposed to occupy the isle of Rhio, about sixty miles from Singapore, where the Dutch had formerly had an establishment, which they had abandoned. But when the British Commissioners (Sir Stamford Raffles, with Colonel Farquhar and Captain Ross,) reached the Straits, they found the Dutch had been beforehand with them, and had again obtained possession of Rhio. "Nothing, therefore," says Mr. Newbold, "was left for the Commissioners but the occupation of some eligible island in the vicinity. Singapore was the island wisely selected. Thus Rhio has been the means of giving birth to a rival who has not only absorbed most of her trade, but who has totally annihilated the ambitious dreams entertained by Holland of monopolising the rich commerce of the Eastern seas. There cannot exist a stronger contrast than that presented by these two ports, the benefits of free trade on one side, and the deleterious effects of taxation on the other. The Dutch latterly, finding their harbour almost deserted, have either taken off or reduced very materially the heavy taxations."

"The population of the island of Singapore, in 1819, amounted to about 150 fishermen and pirates, living in a few miserable huts: about thirty of these were Chinese, the remainder Malays. It rapidly increased in less than one year to nearly 5000, principally Chinese; and, in November, 1822, we are informed by Sir Stamford Raffles, that the population of the town of Singapore amounted to at least 10,000 inhabitants of all nations, actually engaged in profitable commercial pursuits, and land rapidly increasing in value. In 1836-7, its population amounted to 29,984."

"The junks from China bring annually a large number of Chinese settlers. The censuses include neither the military, their followers, nor the convicts—the number of whom may be estimated at about 1200†,—and the Europeans and Chinese constitute the wealthier classes. The Europeans are for the most part merchants, shopkeepers, and agents for mercantile houses in Europe. Most of the artisans, labourers, agriculturists, and shopkeepers, are Chinese. The Malays subsist chiefly by fishing, collecting seaweed, and cutting timber: numbers are employed as boatmen and sailors, a mode of life peculiarly congenial to Malay habits. The Bugis are almost invariably engaged in commerce, and

* The inspissated juice of the Nuclea Gambir: it is used largely by most of the nations of the East with their betel, and by the Chinese for tanning leather. It is used in Europe under the names of Terra Japonica, or Catechu, as an astrigent medicine.

† Convicts are sent from the Continent of India to Pinang, Malacca, and Singapore.

* The climate of Malacca is justly celebrated for its salubrity; though, as is the case with the climates of all countries near the equator, it is found fault with, not unreasonably, on account of its moistness and occasional closeness.

the natives of India as petty shopkeepers, boatmen, servants, &c."

An Anglo-Chinese college is established at Malacca, of which we have the following account:—"Its objects are mainly the reciprocal cultivation of Chinese and European literature, and the diffusion of Christianity. European tutors are appointed to instruct the Europeans in Chinese; and to instruct the Chinese, with other ultra-Gangetic nations reading Chinese, in European literature. There are also two native Chinese teachers. Provision is made for instruction in the Malay language and in ultra-Gangetic literature, but as subordinate objects. To European students, the Chinese language is taught, either for religious, literary, or commercial purposes; and to the Native students, geography, history, moral philosophy, and Christianity. The resources of this institution are fees paid by European and native students who are able to maintain themselves, and voluntary contributions. Students eligible for admission are persons from any nation in Europe, or from America; persons of any Christian communion, bringing with them proper testimonials of their moral habits, and of the objects they have in view; persons from European or other universities, having travelling fellowships; persons belonging to commercial companies; and persons attached to the establishment of official representatives of foreign nations. Also native youths, belonging to China and its tributary kingdoms, or to any of the islands and countries around, who either support themselves, or are supported by Christian societies, or by private gentlemen, who wish to serve them by giving them the means of obtaining a knowledge of the elements of English literature." Attached to the college* is an English, Chinese, and Malay press, and also a library.

A similar institution, to which it was proposed to remove the Malacca establishment, was projected at Singapore, and 15,000 dollars were expended on the erection of suitable buildings, which still remain unfinished; but, "from causes too long for detail," says Mr. Newbold, "the scheme fell through, and the unfinished building has been fast going to ruin, though lately, I understand, it has undergone some repair. The Company liberally bestowed a donation of 4000 Spanish dollars, and a monthly allowance of 300 Spanish dollars, upon the Chinese and Malayan schools. The Singapore institution, as it exists at present, consists of three schools, English, Malay and Tamil. It receives the support of Government to the amount of 200 rupees per mensem, but is principally supported by subscriptions. The number of scholars amounts to upwards of seventy. A Chinese school on a large scale is contemplated when the building is ready for its reception. A number of Chinese youths are to be admitted as students to reside at the institution and to receive instruction in both English and Chinese for a term of four or five years."

We are sorry that our limits do not permit us to go into details upon the subject of the trade carried on at Singapore, or the state of Pinang and Malacca, for which ample materials are furnished by Mr. Newbold; but we are warned to conclude, and will do so with the following brief view of the rapid progress of Singapore, which, be it recollected, is to be regarded more as an emporium of the productions of other places than as trading in its own commodities:—

"The first free port of modern times, in which the principles of free trade have been carried into practice, is Singapore. In little more than a twelvemonth after the adoption of them, its harbour presented a pleasing prospect of future prosperity; besides ships, brigs, prows, &c., we are informed by Colonel Farquhar, the then resident, that upwards of twenty junks, three from China, two from Cochinchina, and the rest from Siam and other quarters, were lying at anchor. Merchants of all descriptions were congregating so fast, that nothing was heard of in the shape of complaint, but the want of more ground to build upon. According to Sir Stamford Raffles, its exports and imports by native boats alone exceeded four millions of dollars in the year; and during the first two years and a half, no less than 2889 vessels entered and cleared from the port, of which 383 were owned and commanded by Europeans, and 1526 by Natives, their united tonnage amounting to 161,000 tons, giving a total amount of about eight millions of dollars as the capital turned. In the year 1822, the tonnage amounted to 130,689 tons, and the total value of exports and imports to upwards of eight millions of dollars; in 1824, to more than thirteen millions; and in 1835-6, to upwards of fourteen millions."

* This institution owes much to the exertions of the late Dr. Morrison, who gave 1,000*l.* towards the erection of the college, and endowed it with 100*l.* annually for the next five years.

IMPORTANCE OF THE ARTS.

THIS is, indeed, not more a display of the triumph of the fine arts, than of the deep interest which the most distinguished classes of the community take in their progress; and well they may! Of those pursuits, what has not been said, what panegyrics not pronounced, hundreds, almost thousands, of years ago, by the most eloquent of tongues! That they are the ornament of prosperous fortune and the solace of adverse—give a zest to our daily toil, and watch with us through the sleepless night—enliven the solitude of the country, and tranquillise the bustle and turmoil of the town.—all this is true, but it is not the whole truth. All this they do, and much more. The fine arts are great improvers of mankind; they are living sources of refinement—the offspring, indeed, of civilization; but, like her of Greece whose piety they have so often commemorated, nourishing the parent from whom their existence was derived—softening and humanising the characters of men—assuaging the fierceness of the wilder passions; substituting calm and harmless enjoyment for more perilous excitement—maintaining the innocent intercourse of nations, and affording one more pledge of peace, their great patroness and protectress, as she is of all that is most precious and most excellent among men. It becomes us all, then, most diligently to foster them. It is the duty of the Government, it is the interest of the country. No station is so exalted, no fortune so splendid, as not to derive lustre from bestowing such patronage—no lot so obscure as not to participate in the benefits they diffuse.—*Lord Brougham.*

TREASURE-FINDING IN THE REIGN OF QUEEN ELIZABETH.

THE following letter, addressed to the great Lord Burleigh, is a curious specimen of the superstition still prevalent in the days of "good Queen Bess."

"Leave your lordship to understand that there is a castell in the parish of Skemfryth, in the countie of Montgomery, your lordship graunt full authoritie unto mine own selfe, I am a poore subject of the queen's, if there be any treasure there, your lordship shall know it, for by the voice of the countrey there is treasure. No man in remembrance was ever sene to open it, and great wars hath been at it; and there was a place not farr from it whose name is Gamdon, that is as much as to say *the game is down*. Pray you, good my lord, your letter to the castle, craving your lordship's free authority to open, and if treasure be there, I will use it as it ought to be, and I will stand to your lordship's to give me what you please. For the countrey saith there is great treasure. The voice of the countrey goeth there is a dyrell and his dame, one sits upon a hogshed of gold, the other upon a hogshed of silver; yet, nevertheless, with your lordship's full power and authoritie, they shall be removed, by the grace of God, without any charge to the queene and your lordship. If that treasure be there, then I will look for something at your hands. So praying your lordship's answer for the present despatche, so I bid your lordship farewell. From the Tower of London, this 28th of April, 1589. Your lordship's to commande,

"WILLIAM HOBBYE.

"Your lordship's owne hand write the Lord Treasurer underneath this petition, as for example—

"THE LORD TREASURER."

—*Queen Elizabeth and Her Times.*

PREROGATIVES OF ENGLISHWOMEN.

PETER HEVLIN, in his "Cosmographie," 1652, says—"The women of England, generally more handsome than in other places, are sufficiently endowed with natural beauties, without the addition of adulterate sophistications. In an absolute woman, say the Italians, are required the parts of a Dutch woman from the girdle downwards; of a French woman, from the girdle to the shoulders; over which must be placed an English face. As their beauties, so also their prerogatives are greater than any nation; neither so servilely submissive as the French, nor so jealously guarded as the Italian; but keeping so true a decorum, that, as England is termed the Purgatory of Servants and the Hell of Horses, so is it acknowledged the *Paradise of Women*. It is a common by-word among the Italians, that if there were a bridge built across the narrow seas, all the women in Europe would run into England: for here they have the upper hand in the streets, the upper place at the table, the thirds of their husbands' estates, and their equal share of all lands—privileges with which other women are not acquainted."

HUMAN FRIENDSHIPS.

When Ivy twines around a tree,
And o'er the boughs hangs verdantly,
Or on the bark, however rough,
It seems, indeed, polite enough;
And—judging from external things—
We deem it there in friendship clings:
But where our weak and mortal eyes
Attain not, hidden treachery lies;
'T is there it brings decay unseen,
While all without seems bright and green:
So that the tree, which flourish'd fair,
Before its time grows old and bare;
Then, like a barren log of wood,
It stands in lifeless solitude!—
For treachery drags it to its doom,
Which gives but blight, yet promised bloom.

Thou, whom the powerful Fates have hurl'd
'Midst this huge forest call'd the world,
Know that not all are friends whose faces
Are habited in courteous graces;
But think that, 'neath the sweetest smile,
Oft lurk Self-interest, Hate, and Guile;
Or, that some gay and playful joke
Is Spite's dark sheath, or Envy's cloak.
Then love not each who offers thee,
In seeming truth, his amity;
But first take heed, and weigh with care,
Ere he thy love and favour share;
For those who friends too lightly choose,
Soon friends, and all besides, may lose.

BOWRING'S *Batavian Anthology*.

FAULTLESSNESS.

It is well that there is no one without a fault, for he would not have a friend in the world; he would seem to belong to a different species.—*Haslitt*.

EXAMPLE BEFORE PRECEPT.

It is commonly found that the general behaviour and conversation of parents produce a decidedly deeper impression on the minds of the young, than any formal instructions, however in themselves excellent. When children are addressed directly, their minds recoil, or at least their attention is apt to flag; but their own shrewd observations on what they see done or hear said by others, on the estimates which they perceive their parents to form of things and characters, and on the governing principles by which they judge their conduct to be regulated, sink deep into their memories, and, in fact, constitute by far the most effective part of education.—*Bishop Wilson*.

LADY JANE GREY.

She had the innocence of childhood, the beauty of youth, the birth of a princess, the learning of a clerk, the life of a saint, and the death of a malefactor. Her writings when in prison prove her to have added the resignation of a martyr, and the constancy of a heroine, to the faith and duty of a Christian.—*Tupper*.

WISE IGNORANCE.

As there is a foolish wisdom, so there is a wise ignorance, in not prying into God's ark—not inquiring in o things not revealed. I would fain know all that I need, and all that I may: I leave God's secrets to himself. It is happy for me that God makes me of his court, though not of his council. *Bp. Hall*.

MUTABILITY.

He who expects a constancy here, looks for that which this world cannot give. It is only above the sun that there is no moon to change.—*Feltham*.

CONSTANCY.

Art thou, then, desolate,—
Of friends, of hopes forsaken? Come to me!
I am thine own. Have trusted hearts proved false,—
Flatterers deceived thee? Wonderer, come to me!
Why didst thou ever leave me? Know'st thou all
I would have borne, and called it joy to bear,
For thy sake? Know'st thou that thy voice had power
To shake me with a thrill of happiness
By one kind tone,—to fill mine eyes with tears
Of yearning love? And thou—oh! thou didst
That crush'd affection back upon my heart;
Yet come to me!—it did not.

F. HERMAN.



OUR LITERARY LETTER-BOX.

We have received a number of interesting communications relative to *MUTUAL INSTRUCTION SOCIETIES*, and will be obliged by receiving more, as we propose making use of them.

Several of our correspondents have suggested subjects which require *articles* rather than *answers*, and which we will attend to as we can overtake them. The present Number contains more than one article originated by letters received. We also have to acknowledge a communication, and pamphlet, on "The Chronology of the Ancient World; a Lecture delivered at the Mechanics' Institution, Ipswich, by William Henry Alexander.—London: Harvey and Darton."

"TO THE EDITOR OF THE LONDON SATURDAY JOURNAL."

"FOR THE LETTER-BOX."

"Taking it for granted that you are interested in the welfare of Ireland, and also that you are inclined to make public the means whereby she has attained her present comparative prosperity, I beg leave to send you the following brief account of a 'naturalised' Irishman, who, by persevering assiduity, has gained for himself the gratitude of his countrymen.

"Carlo Bianconi, availing himself of the peace of Amiens to fly from the conscription which was so rigidly enforced in Italy by Bonaparte, came over from Milan to Dublin, when quite a youth, friendless and unprotected, to gain his bread in a foreign land. On his arrival in Ireland, he commenced his career as a seller of prints, when, perceiving how much time he lost in walking from town to town—there being no public conveyance cheap enough for those in moderate circumstances,—he determined, if ever he should have the means in his power, to remedy this inconvenience, first for himself, and then for the public. Accordingly, having by dint of hard labour mustered a little sum of money, he started a stage-car from Clonmel to Cahir, a distance of about ten English miles, and soon afterwards a second to Thurles; but the novelty of his plan not being at first duly appreciated, the support which he received from the public was so small, that the attempt had almost proved abortive.

"A commencement so discouraging would have damped the ardour of any man less resolute than Bianconi. This was in the year 1815; but he still continued running his car day after day, until the people gradually perceiving the benefits which were thus placed within their reach, his project was at length crowned with complete success. From that time to the present, his progress has been one of uninterrupted prosperity; and he who at one time *haunted* about his prints, is now the respected proprietor of seventy stage-cars.

"Of this one individual it is not too much to say, that he has done more practical good for the South of Ireland than almost all the landed proprietors from the banks of the Saur to Dingle Bay. He has opened regular and rapid communication with places, many of which were before almost unknown; and his earnest desire is to make all who serve him participate in the advantages which he himself derives from his own industry. His is no spurious popularity, but the result of substantial services which speak for themselves on all the highways and byways of Munster. I remain, sir, your obedient servant,

"LECTOR."

JUVENIS.—"As I have a wish to acquire the *Greek Language*, I should be extremely gratified if you could inform me what Grammar would be the most likely to shorten my labours, and to enable me to arrive at a successful termination of them."

Does *Juvenis* remember that saying—"Which of you, intending to build a tower, sitteth not down first and counteth the cost, whether he have sufficient to finish it?" It is very applicable to young men, in their eager desire to learn everything *all of a heap*, and who fancy that they have but to devote an hour or two of their leisure, in the evenings, to learn Greek, Latin, German, mathematics—anything and everything! Far would we be from throwing a wet blanket over the smoking fire of a generous and ardent enthusiasm! But when young men think of commencing a study, they should "count the cost, whether they have sufficient to finish it." In plain words, *Juvenis* should ask himself, what use Greek will be to him in his particular calling; and he should test his powers and his patience—otherwise he may give up, after long study, and discover that he has spent his time in acquiring a knowledge of little more than the letters of the alphabet; a very barren result!

If *Juvenis* is really determined to attempt to acquire a *Knowledge* of Greek by his own exertions, we would recommend him, before he begins, to get some preliminary information:—such as, to try to procure an "Introductory Lecture

delivered at the University of London, by Professor Long, on the Study of the Greek and Latin Languages; "or an article by the same gentleman, "What are the Advantages of a Study of Antiquity at the present time?" in the third volume of the Central Society of Education, Taylor and Walton, Gower-street.

H. R. CLACKMANNAN.—Who destroyed the Alexandrian Library—the Arabs or the Christians?—It would appear to be unquestionable that Alexandria contained a splendid library of MSS. down to the period of its being taken by the Saracens, A. D. 640; and that afterwards we know nothing about it—so that it must either have been destroyed or gradually dispersed. The common story is, that they were destroyed, on the decision of the Caliph Omar, to whom Amrou, the conqueror of the city, had referred the matter. "If these writings of the Greeks agree with the Book of God [the Koran], they are useless, and need not be preserved: if they disagree, they are pernicious, and ought to be destroyed."—"The sentence," says Gibbon, "was executed with blind obedience: the volumes of paper or parchment were distributed to the four thousand baths of the city; and such was their incredible multitude, that six months were barely sufficient for the consumption of this precious fuel." Gibbon, though he tells this story, on the authority of Abulpharagius (an Arabian annalist, who lived six hundred years after the event), throws doubts on its truth, and, with some probability, endeavours to show that the library perished rather by successive accidents, carelessness, &c., in the lapse of time, than by a rigid execution of a sentence which might never have been issued. The truth may lie between. Suppose London to be conquered by the Emperor of China, and that his peculiarly celestial majesty expressed great contempt for all the books of the barbarians which did not agree with the maxims of Confucius; what would become of the library of the *British Museum*, if, in consequence, it were left exposed, or the books turned out, to make room for a Chinese officer? and how many Londoners would be patriotic enough to abstain from assisting the Chinese, in converting the books into wrappers for sausages?

The following letter, which bears the post-mark of Arbroath (Aberbrothwick), is only one out of many which we have received on the all-important subject of EMIGRATION. Some general advice on the subject will be contained in our next Number.

Forfarshire, 13th January, 1840.

"TO THE EDITOR.

"Sir,—As the penny-post has now come into operation, I take the earliest opportunity to benefit myself by this boon, by addressing you, and craving your advice upon a subject of vital importance to me. I am encouraged to do so by the invitation you have given your readers in your Letter-Box Prospectus, and from the conviction that you have the welfare of your fellow-creatures at heart, and that you are unbiased by any mercenary motive.

"I hope you will favour me by attending to the following brief outline of my life, occupation, and views.

"I am thirty-five years of age, tall, muscular, and of sound constitution; a linen-weaver by trade, at which I have applied since ever I could handle a shuttle. In our family the most rigid economy was practised, and instilled into me from infancy. By unremitting toil and perseverance, I scraped together as much as purchased a dwelling-house and garden attached, which, together with my household effects, may be worth about 200*l*. I reside in the suburbs of a manufacturing town in our county; my wife is thirty years of age; I have been married two years, and have one child. Owing to depression of trade and a superabundance of workmen, our wages have been gradually reduced, until I find I can go no further a-head. We receive for working a web 3*s*. 6*d*.; it is hard work to make out four a-week—the average is three and a half, from which we have to deduct gas and loom-rent. Our working hours to attain this are from six o'clock until half-past eight or nine o'clock. Should my family increase, it is impossible my wife could wind my yarn for me, which would cost me an additional 6*d*. each web. I receive 3*l*. 15*s*. for a part of my house let to a tenant. I manage to cultivate vegetables for my family use, in my garden; our food is potatoes twice a-day, and oatmeal porridge in the morning; butcher-meat seldom graces our table.

"Now, sir, my question is this—whether you think I should better myself by emigrating to any of the settlements of New South Wales, Port Philip, or New Zealand? I have always had a desire for a rural life, and am a tolerable gardener; and, from my present locality, I have become a little versed in agricultural affairs. Privations of no ordinary kind, I am aware, would have to be struggled with for four or five years; but if a moderate competence would crown my labours, I should rest content. At my present occupation I feel I cannot strive as I have done—Nature already warns me, by severe pains in my legs after a hard day's work, that I am overstretching the bounds which she has set: and in the course of eight or ten years, my strength will be greatly diminished, my family still unfit to do anything for their support, and I should be unable to give them even a moderate education. You will oblige me by

answering this as soon as convenient, and state which of the settlements you consider best suited for my little capital, or whether you consider me qualified for such an undertaking; and oblige your constant reader, "K. J."

A POLITICIAN begs us to state "the true, strict, and literal meaning of the word pamphlet." Where etymologists disagree it is not for us to decide; all we can do is to point out the various etymologies which have been offered for this contentious little word, and our correspondent must take his choice, which will probably be of that which best suits his purpose. Johnson derives it from the French *par un flet*, held together by a thread—leaves stitched together. Pegge from *palme feuillet*, a leaf to be held in the hand. Webster refers to the Spanish *papelón* (applied either to a pamphlet or a bill posted), derived from *papel*, paper; thus *papaleta*, a slip of paper, on which anything is written. Skinner, in his *Etymologicon Lingue Anglicane*, suggests the Dutch "*pampier*, or *papier*, as if mere paper uncovered or unbound." All these etymologies make near approaches to the modern application of the word, which is applied to one or more sheets of printed paper, uncovered and unbound, and if exceeding one usually stitched together. If to the Dutch *pampier* we add *cleitan*, fleeting, we may perhaps approach nearly to the correct meaning of these quickly circulating, and quickly forgotten, publications; but if our correspondent is still dissatisfied, we must refer him to Myles Davis's "*Icon Libellorum*, or a Critical History of Pamphlets," (quoted in Mr. D'Israeli's *Curiosities of Literature*), where he will find some very learned etymologies.

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